

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
SEVENTH NATIONAL CONFERENCE
ON CITY PLANNING

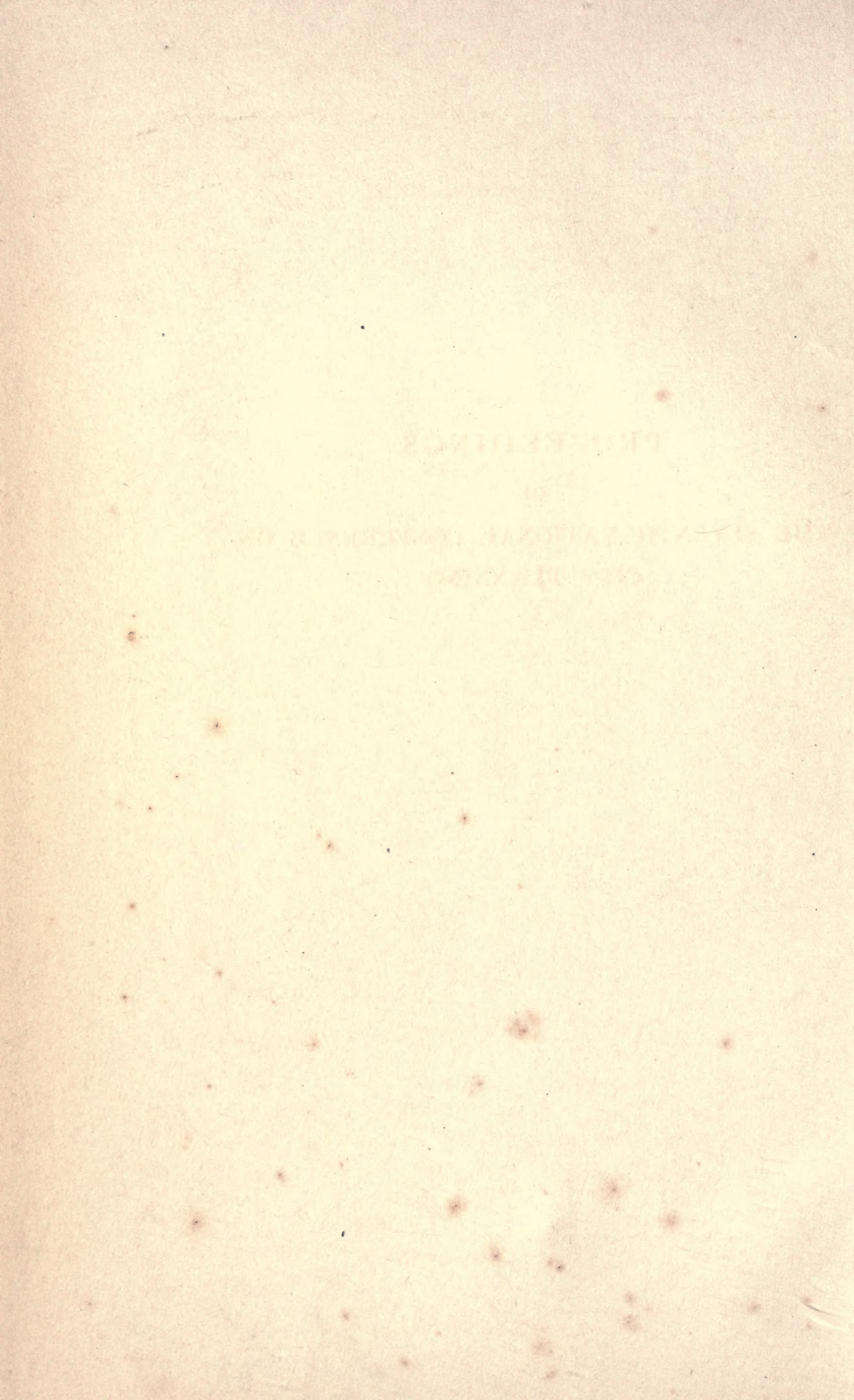
DETROIT

JUNE 7-9, 1915

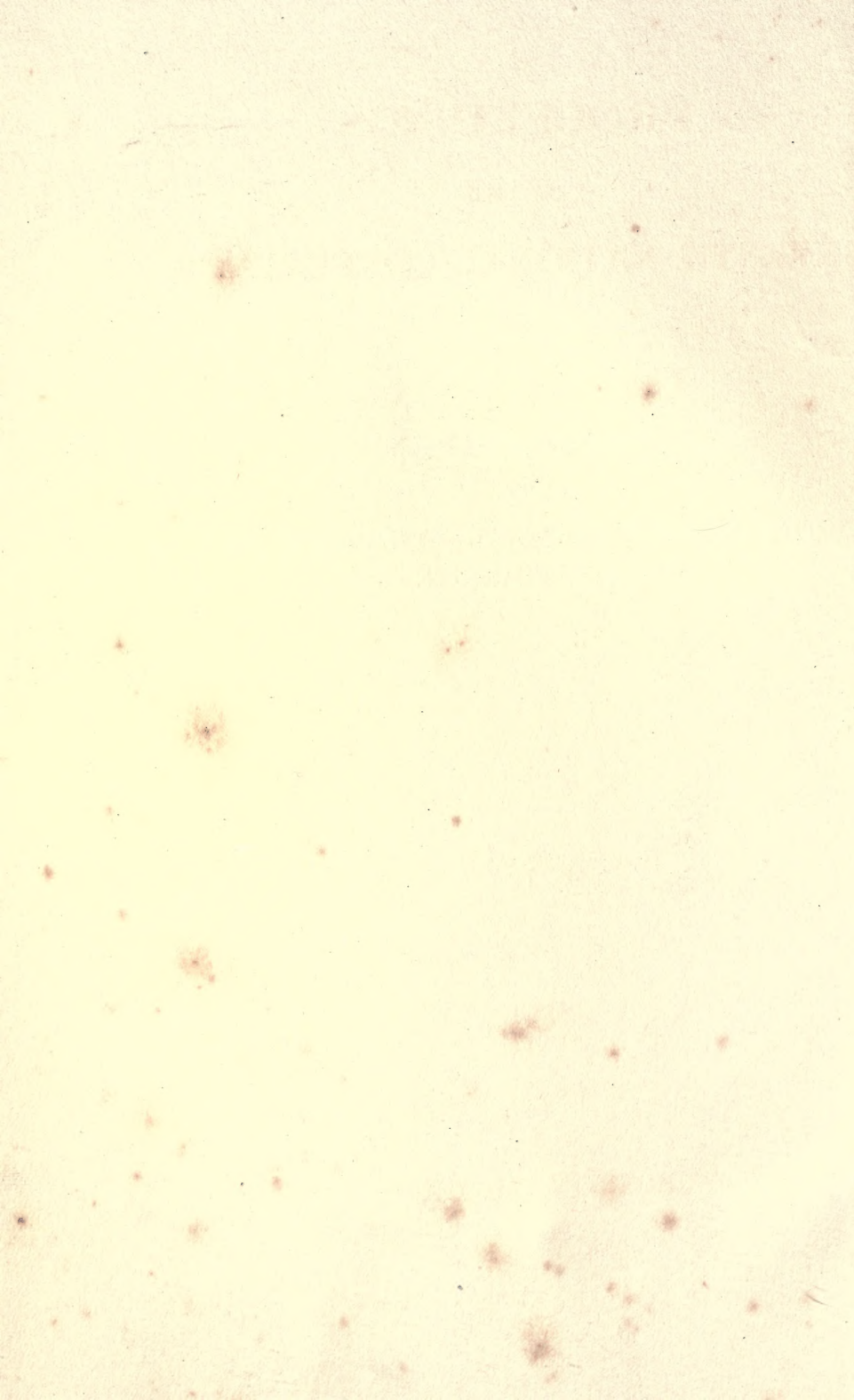


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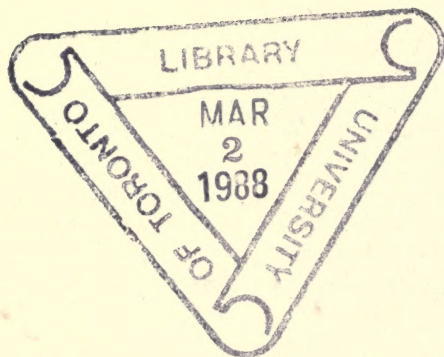


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THE CITY PLAN DEFINED BY A MUNICIPAL ENGINEER

NELSON P. LEWIS

Chief Engineer, Board of Estimate and Apportionment, New York City

OWING to the unfortunate indisposition of the Chairman, the Vice-Chairman finds himself down on the program for an address. When advised of this, the first thing he did was to look over the proceedings of earlier conferences in order to see what Mr. Olmsted had said or rather what he had left unsaid. The general impression gained was that he had very completely covered the field and that there was little left for the present speaker. Perhaps he might attempt to write an overture to the performance which is to follow, indicating briefly the ground to be covered by the papers, discussions and reports which are to be presented; but that might be unfair to those who have prepared them, unless it be that their completeness and thoroughness might be emphasized by the very superficial manner of the attempted outline.

I have concluded to present a few observations, not on city planning as commonly understood, but on the city plan, and endeavor to indicate what it is; and these observations will be those of a municipal engineer who, while he may not have the artistic ideals so happily possessed by other members of the Conference, has had strongly impressed upon him a realization of the shortcomings of the conventional plans of his own and of other American cities, most of which, it must be confessed, have been made by engineers or rather by surveyors. What then is this thing that we speak of as a city plan? The idea most commonly conveyed by the term is a map showing the boundaries of

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the city and the street system which already exists and such streets as have been laid out for future development. It is primarily a map, the basis of which is a survey. The Charter of the City of New York describes the city plan as a permanent map "showing the parks, streets, bridges and tunnels, and approaches to bridges and tunnels as heretofore laid out, adopted and established pursuant to law, and the maps and profiles included in or accompanying the same showing the grades of such streets duly fixed, adopted and established." The preparation of such a plan is little more than surveying, more or less precise surveying, it may be, but it may involve little study of the needs of the community, little sympathy with the traditions and ideals of its people, little exercise of imagination as to its future development and requirements. A plan of and for a city is not simply a map showing the streets, parks, bridges and tunnels and their approaches "as heretofore laid out, adopted and established pursuant to law." That is chiefly a record of what has already been done and cannot be changed without great expense; a record of the mistakes which have been made through lack of foresight and imagination. Not that such mistakes were necessarily due to stupidity, for a generation ago no one could have foreseen the marvelous development of our cities or the great social and economic changes brought about by recent inventions which have so greatly facilitated transit and other means of communication. The city plan as above defined is too minute as to details and ignores the city as a whole, not only as it is, but as it will be.

A real plan is rather the general system of arterial streets and transportation lines by which the different sections of the existing and the future city will be connected with each other and with centers of population outside of the city limits; parks and open spaces and other resorts for recreation and amusement; the existing water front development and the space needed for its further increase; existing public and semi-public buildings and sites for those

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which may be required in the future. This is the real city plan which will control future development, stimulating it or retarding it as the case may be. The block dimensions and angles, the widths of minor streets and the subdivision into a vast number of rectangular blocks of standard size, with an explanation of or an apology for every departure from that standard do not constitute the city plan, the Charter of the City of New York to the contrary notwithstanding. The city plan is something bigger and broader. It is something to which the city may grow, not something to which it must be restricted or within which it must be confined as in a straitjacket.

The economic considerations which should control city planning are precisely those which should prevail in the design of a house, shop, railway terminal or water supply system; namely, adaptation to probable or possible increase in demand and capacity to supply that demand. If the manufactory or the railway is foreordained to failure, the less expended upon it the better. There are a few towns which were laid out during "boom" periods on lines which were fancied to be those of a future metropolis, where the broad streets are grass grown, where the public buildings are but half occupied and where everything speaks of a splendid ambition which resulted in grotesque failure. When a city, occupying a strategic position, has begun a natural development which causes growing pains indicative of a misfit in its general plan, it is time to look toward the future, to adjust the plan to new conditions and to provide for still further growth. To tear down and enlarge is very costly, especially so when there is no room for enlargement without the purchase of additional land which has become far more valuable than when the original enterprise was begun. This is constantly being done by individuals and corporations whose domestic or business requirements make it necessary. In any case it involves a distinct loss which may be justified by the means of indulging in a luxury or by the prospect of increased profit. Cannot the city, it may

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be asked, instead of trying to provide for the remote future, well afford the expense of reconstruction to adapt itself to its growing needs, especially when it has the power, through its ability to levy taxes and assessments, to impose the cost of the necessary changes upon the property which will be chiefly benefited? No expense involving the destruction of property can be justified if it can be avoided by the exercise of reasonable forethought, and the taxing power of the city should not be used unnecessarily. The requirements of the modern city are so great that the burden of taxation will inevitably be heavy. Improvements in the city plan may increase values to such a degree that they would be cheap at almost any price, but if the plan could be so made as to avoid the necessity for destructive changes, both the city at large and the individual property owner will be the gainers. To defer the correction of mistakes which are quite apparent in well developed sections of the city or to put off the adoption of a broader policy for those in process of development because land is expensive and costly improvements would be destroyed is not unnatural even though unwise. To fail to take advantage of such object lessons in parts of the city where there are few, if any, improvements or where the street plan has not yet been definitely fixed is the height of folly.

Few writers on city planning have defined the elements of a comprehensive city plan, and most of those doing so have laid special emphasis upon the organization and administration of the city, particularly its social activities. The convenience and attractiveness of a city will depend conspicuously upon four features of its physical plan.

The first of them is the transportation system, or the means provided for getting in and out of the city, and for quick movement of passengers and freight from one part of the town to another. It is obvious that transit needs cannot be accurately foreseen, but provision should be made for improving and extending them when needed. A large part of the transportation will always be in the streets

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themselves, and its adequacy and efficiency will be largely determined by the location and dimensions of the streets in which the intra-urban transit lines are located. The difficulties which are presented in providing an adequate system of transportation within a city lacking in streets sufficiently wide to accommodate them is admirably illustrated by the case of the two track rapid transit subway about to be built under William Street in New York City. This street is 40 feet wide and the width of excavation required for the subway is 29 feet, which at stations will be increased to the full width between building lines. The depth of the subway will vary from 25 to 31 feet below the surface and in general will be from 3 to 5 feet below mean high tide, reaching at one place a depth of 14 and at another place 20 feet below high water. The estimated cost of this one-half mile of railway, based upon the lowest bid, is \$2,254,670, or about \$850 a linear foot.

The great cost of this work is in large measure due to the fact that it was necessary to underpin the foundations of a number of tall buildings, 45 of which under 7 stories in height have an assessed value of \$7,000,000, 20 of from 7 to 12 stories are assessed at \$18,000,000, and 10 from 13 to 20 stories in height have an assessed value of \$15,000,000. It will be difficult to find a more forcible illustration of the need of providing in the plan of a city sufficient streets whose position will make them available for rapid transit routes and whose widths will be sufficient to permit the construction of such lines without an expense which would be prohibitive in most cities.

The second feature is the street system in and through which the daily business is done and by which the people gain access to their homes and pass from these homes to their work, recreation and amusement. A street system once adopted and developed must remain indefinitely. While some streets may be widened and an occasional new street may be cut through existing improvements, the general street plan, once established and constructed, is fastened

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upon the city as long as the city itself lasts. A catastrophe such as the great fire of London in 1666 or the San Francisco fire in 1906 may afford an opportunity for a recasting of the plan for a considerable area, but it is seldom availed of.

Few cities have a street system which has been planned as a unit. In Europe they have had their beginning in a cluster of houses built under the shadow of a feudal castle. In this country the most fortunate of them have had their beginning in a New England village green, which has made an admirable starting point. The plans for subsequent additions have often been a matter of chance. There are a few instances where plans were made in anticipation of many years of growth, one of the most conspicuous being that of New York, which in 1807 authorized the preparation of a plan covering all of Manhattan Island. The considerations which determined the character of this plan, as outlined in the report of the commission, are interesting. They debated whether or not they should follow the conventional system of planning a city by dividing it into a great number of rectangular blocks or whether they should adopt some other general plan. After careful consideration they reached the conclusion that "a city must be composed principally of the habitations of men and that straight-sides and right-angled houses are the most cheap to build and the most convenient to live in. The effect of these plain and simple reflections was decisive," and New York has suffered ever since from the limitations imposed upon it by this checkerboard plan which, while it may permit the building of houses which are cheap and convenient to live in, makes movement about its streets anything but convenient. At the time this commission made its report Major L'Enfant had produced his admirable plan for the national capitol of Washington, and even a century and a half before that time plans had been proposed for the rebuilding of London after the great fire of 1666 which recognized the defects of rectangular planning

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and the advantages of the creation of focal points and radial and diagonal streets. These radial streets and circumferential thoroughfares are conspicuous features of many European cities, and their wisdom in providing for them has often been pointed out, but too much credit should not be given them. They were formerly walled cities, and within the walls there were narrow streets, extreme congestion and the worst possible sanitary conditions. A few highways led out of the city through the walls and into the open country, but these were not designed as arteries of traffic required by and contributing to peaceful commerce; they were routes of advance against or retreat before attacking forces or were designed to facilitate predatory raids. When peace rather than war became a normal condition and the city walls could safely be demolished and the moats filled up, the possibility of converting the space occupied by them into great ring streets or boulevards and their peculiar availability for this purpose became apparent. But few towns in America have old walls which they can convert into such streets, yet their advantages are so obvious that they are being planned by many great cities, some of them at enormous cost for land and buildings which must be destroyed and with entire disarrangement of the existing street system. One of the characteristics of such city planning, as has been done in this country, is the adoption of a standard lot and block unit and the combination of these standard blocks into series which will determine the location of what are to become the secondary and even the principal arteries of traffic. This is a reversal of the natural and the logical method in which a city should develop. The standard lot and block is a habit which has persisted with no very good reason. The lot unit may differ in different cities, but once adopted it has been adhered to with surprising fidelity in each city. In New York this lot unit is 25 by 100 feet; in Chicago it is 25 by 125 feet; in Philadelphia the blocks were originally laid out 400 feet square and many of these have been sub-

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divided by two separate streets each 40 feet wide into three blocks 400 feet long and about 107 feet wide. After providing narrow passages 3 feet wide through the center of each of these long blocks, the resulting lots are about 52 feet deep and many of them are but 14 feet wide, the minimum width of lot for a dwelling house which is permitted by the city ordinances, resulting in provision for 168 separate buildings on this original block, or at the rate of 46 buildings to an acre. If the arterial and secondary streets had first been located in a rational manner and the subdivision of these areas had been controlled by them instead of being allowed to control them, many of our cities would have more distinctive character and would be far more attractive and livable.

The third element includes the park and recreation facilities, upon which the comfort and health of the community are to a large degree dependent. It is true that a lack of proper parks may be supplied at any time, even when the space to be devoted to that purpose shall have been built upon and when the cost of their acquisition will be greatly enhanced, but a park system can be most economically and satisfactorily established in advance of other improvements, and facility of access to them and proper connections between the different park units will depend upon the street system, so that the park plan should be worked out in connection with the street plan.

The future park needs of a city cannot be accurately anticipated. They will depend upon the density of population and the occupation of the people. The industrial town or district obviously needs a greater park space than a high class residential district, and yet it usually has less. Mr. Charles Downing Lay, formerly landscape architect of the New York Park Department, estimates the park needs of a city of 100,000 population at 1500 acres, or $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the city area. This would mean that with a density of population of but $8\frac{1}{3}$ persons to the acre there would be one acre of park to every $66\frac{2}{3}$ people. Statistics

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of 22 cities varying in size from London to Rochester, N. Y., show an average density of population of 30.5 per acre, a park area of 6.32 per cent that of the city and one acre of park to 483 persons. Variations, however, are extreme. Berlin, with a density of population of 133 to the acre, has 7 per cent of its area in parks, or one acre of park to 2014 persons. In London, with a density of 60, 9 per cent of the area is devoted to parks, or one acre to 677 people. In New York these figures are 28, 4 and 689 respectively; in Washington they are 9, 14 and 68, while Kansas City has a density of population of only 8 to the acre and has 5 per cent of its area devoted to parks, or one acre to 144 persons. In providing park areas for the future city it is very advantageous to buy acreage property in anticipation of future needs; out of these areas the parks can be made and the surplusage, if any, may be sold at an advanced price which will go far toward meeting the cost of the park investment.

The fourth element referred to is the location of public buildings, which may render the conduct of public business convenient or difficult and may give a favorable or unfavorable impression to visitors. Public buildings like business buildings can be changed in location as necessity and convenience may require, but the suitability of their sites, whether they are convenient and commanding or awkward and unprepossessing, will depend upon the streets about them and leading to them, so that the location of these buildings should receive the most careful study in the preparation of the general plan of the city.

The location of public buildings is a subject which has received not too much attention, but a proportionately greater share of study than have the other elements which have been enumerated. A visitor to a city cannot appreciate the merits or defects of its street system until it has been studied, but the dignity and the effective arrangement of its public buildings will attract attention at once. But why confine the study of

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this problem to the great buildings, the City Hall, the Court House, the libraries, the museums, the university, and leave the location of the subordinate buildings to chance? And yet this is the practice which is usually followed even in the most ambitious schemes for city planning. Why should not certain municipal blocks be set aside for the accommodation in one block of a high school, a grammar school, a branch library, a public bath; in another block a police station, a fire engine house, a municipal garage or stable, and a repair shop? These various buildings could be designed to harmonize with each other and the city would acquire a distinction by such grouping, while the expense of heating, maintenance and repairs would be considerably decreased. As to buildings of a semi-public character, such as railway stations, places of amusement, churches, etc., if the street system is so planned as to furnish advantageous sites which would permit buildings of this character to be seen to advantage and through which they could be conveniently approached, they would doubtless be availed of for the purpose.

There are many other details which, while less fundamental than those already referred to, are of the utmost importance, such as the proper proportion of roadway and sidewalks to afford the maximum of accommodation for the kind of traffic on each street, the design and location of lamp posts and the effective lighting of the streets, an intelligent plan for tree planting which will result in the best results so far as the appearance of the streets are concerned and will at the same time give the trees a fair opportunity to grow, the location and maintenance of underground structures so as to reduce to a minimum the mutilation of street pavements in order to gain access to them. These, however, might be called questions of administration which must be met and solved long after the general plan of the city has been determined.

The responsibility of the municipal engineer for the future planning of our cities is very great, and at the

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same time an opportunity is presented which should be welcomed. The exercise of vision and imagination on their part has too often been deemed a dangerous incursion into a field foreign to their proper activities, and yet the engineer is the first man on the ground in laying the foundations upon which our cities are to be built. He has been too prone to regard this preliminary work as a mere matter of surveying and he has been more intent upon the accuracy of his measurement of lines and angles and of his computation of areas than upon the larger problem of providing for the orderly and sightly development of the city. His eyes have been so closely fixed upon the drawing board that he has seldom looked up to catch a vision of the great city that is to come, the complex organism known as the modern city with its varied activities, its difficult social problems, its ugliness or its beauty, its awkwardness or its convenience, its capacity to debase or to elevate its citizens. Every blunder that he makes will afford an opportunity for some one else to win applause for a plan to correct it through large expenditure of public funds. It often seems as if the admiration excited by what are commonly called city planning projects is in direct proportion to the amount of destruction of existing improvements and the extent of the disarrangement of the existing plan which may be involved. If you are going to dream, we are told, dream a big dream and the people will look and admire; but these big dreams appear always to involve the spectacular making over of a big city and rarely the planning of a city not yet come into being or even of a city which is just beginning to give promise of rapid growth, although still in a formative state. Planning of this latter kind will not bring applause; genius devoted to such work will not win prompt recognition. The merits of such a constructive plan may not be appreciated during the lifetime of the man responsible for it. L'Enfant died many years before his plan for Washington was realized to be anything more than a fanciful sketch.

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The speaker does not envy the architect who offers an ingenious and effective solution of a difficulty caused by lack of foresight in city planning, but he deplores the fact that such blunders have been so commonly made by engineers, and more particularly the fact that the engineers are so inclined to go on repeating the same mistakes. The making of a comprehensive plan for the future development of a city or for correcting the obvious defects of an existing plan is not the work of a few weeks or months or even years. It is more likely to be the result of many years of patient work, and the men who did it will be forgotten before it is finally carried out. It is no one man job and it is never actually finished. However carefully and skillfully the first plan may have been made, unforeseen changes will take place, new methods of transportation will be developed, new inventions will powerfully affect the social life of the community, and the plan, where still susceptible of change, must be modified to meet these changed conditions. The groundwork of a comprehensive city plan must obviously be laid by the regularly employed technical staff of the city with the aid of special expert advisers; but the organization created for this purpose should be carefully selected. It should contain men who are familiar with the past history and traditions of the community and are in sympathy with them, but who can appreciate changing conditions and adapt the old to the new without destroying it. The work should be directed by men who do not think the exercise of imagination an engineering crime; men who are enthusiasts without being doctrinaires; men who are content to do their work well without hope of popular applause and who are willing to await the verdict as to their work which will be rendered by coming generations. They will not, however, be obliged to wait indefinitely for recognition if they manifest an intelligent interest in this subject and an appreciation of its importance.

AN ARCHITECT'S VIEW OF CITY PLANNING

R. CLIPSTON STURGIS

President, American Institute of Architects, Boston

I APPRECIATE very much indeed this opportunity, almost a chance opportunity, to be with you here tonight and to speak to you about a subject that you have very much at heart and that I also am extremely interested in, although I am quite willing to confess myself quite ignorant about it. And it is because I feel more or less of an amateur about city planning, and because I do not know very much about the subject and have not given it the sort of study that it deserves, that I feel quite free to talk about it.

It seems to me that town planning has two very distinct elements, without which it cannot be successful. And I am going to dwell, if I may, for just a few minutes on two thoughts: one, that it requires that commonest of all qualities, common sense, and the other that it requires continuity of policy, a thing of which we so seldom see any sign in this country.

Common sense then, should be applied to this question of laying out streets in a city thoroughfare for the purpose of getting from point to point, for the purpose of allowing the people and the traffic, in such numbers as may be naturally aligned in certain districts, through from one point to another. If they are going to be laid out on perfectly level land, it seems reasonable enough that streets should be laid out rectangularly. If they are laid out on undulating land, it seems perfectly reasonable that they should be laid out as you naturally walk or drive or lay out the roads, if you are not an architect or engineer, in the simplest and easiest way to get from point to point.

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So those two methods have been spoken of as if they were to be methods that were in conflict and as if the checkerboard pattern was one scheme and had its enthusiastic supporters in the dark ages perhaps, and that another scheme that departed from the checkerboard had its enthusiastic supporters today. It seems to me that they are both logical under certain circumstances. What we really desire is an easy and direct way of getting from point to point. And the checkerboard, as a matter of fact, is not an easy way, and however clear and accurate it appears to be, as a matter of fact a city laid out on the checkerboard plan is the most confusing place to find your way about in that there is.

It is quite as difficult for the stranger to find his way about in the part of New York that is absolutely checkerboard — well not quite as difficult, but nearly as difficult — as it is for him to find his way about in Boston.

Now regularity tends to confusion, while irregularity, as a matter of fact, tends to distinctness and allows one to find one's way readily. I venture to say that it is far easier for a stranger, after a few days in London, to find his way about there because it is irregular, because it is marked at various points by squares and circles so distinctive that when he reaches them he recognizes them and so knows where he is.

So that it seems to me that common sense more than anything else is required in the laying out of city streets so that they will serve the actual needs, meet the actual conditions of the contours and the actual needs of the people that are going to use the streets.

The other purpose of the streets is to bound lots, the places that are left for building. Of course it is perfectly true, as our early ancestors in New York pointed out, that a square house is the convenient house to live in. But, as a matter of fact, it really does not matter tremendously whether we live in an absolutely rectangular room or not. I venture to say that nine out of ten of us would go into a

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room that was askew, and that was well furnished and conveniently arranged, without ever having it borne in upon us that the angles were not right angles. We don't appreciate things of that kind, at least nobody does except the architect who works with the T square and drawing board. The ordinary person does not care anything about rectangles. They do not make life, and the room that is not rectangular may be just exactly as good a room to live in as any other. So that the rectangular lot is not an absolute sine qua non.

On the other hand the lot that is slightly irregular in shape gives the architect all sorts of splendid opportunities for imagination.

When the lots are laid out and considered in connection with the laying out of streets not necessarily rectangular and not necessarily diagonal and not necessarily curving, but perhaps a little of all, adapted to the conditions, the lots will be necessarily irregular; and there will be necessarily at certain junctions places where it is obvious that larger areas shall be set aside for parks or playgrounds or general purposes of pleasure, and those will be the distinctive characteristics in the plan. And lots that are facing on those public open spaces will be distinctive and will be different from the lots that are in the other positions and the ordinary streets. It suggests all the innumerable things that can be done in the gradual growth of the city plan. As you come out into the suburbs you have the opportunities for the garden, for the man or the woman who cares for flowers, or for the kitchen garden, if they care to grow vegetables, or for the playground, if they have a large family of children. It is the architect's work to see that each owner shall get all that is possible from his land.

All these things add character and interest and distinction as well to a place, and they all to my mind form a part of the common sense idea of city planning.

Then comes the question of restrictions, and one is often led to question why it is that we insist on uniform restric-

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tions on our streets. You know perfectly well that if a single individual had a good sized block to develop, and he were going to build every house on that block, he would never for a moment dream of setting his houses all ten feet back from the street and having them all in a straight row. It would be perfectly absurd if he had a chance to do differently. He would set them backward and forward so that, instead of having four corners on his large square lot, he might have sixteen or more that would be corner houses; and he would set his houses back and forward and give individuality and interest to every single house, and besides that to the whole block.

So that this question of restrictions is one question which must be governed by common sense, and my own feeling is, if it were possible to put that kind of thing into the hands of one man who had the power and sense to set his restrictions case by case to fit the individual conditions of the place in the city, that we would get infinitely better results. The trouble about our restrictions is that they are made in a broad, general way and then we find that they do not fit.

We had a restriction in the city of Boston that there should not be a saloon within 200 feet of a schoolhouse on the same street. Why? Because the drunken people coming out from a saloon would shock the children — children who lived on the street most of their time and who went backward and forward to their homes — all on the supposition that they lived in the school the whole time of their lives. Of course they did nothing of the kind. Moreover the restriction said "On the same street." The saloon might be around the corner 50 feet away instead of 200 as long as it was around the corner and not on the same street. Just one of those foolish restrictions put on, with perhaps an idea behind it, and carried through with an "Hurrah, boys" as being a splendid thing for temperance and really having no sense behind it whatsoever. Once when I was managing the schools in the city of Bos-

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ton, and we wanted to open an extra door to a school that was on the corner, we found that if we did it we would put three saloons out of business and take their licenses away.

Restrictions as to where you can locate a stable, another foolish sort of a thing, depend upon what kind of a stable it is and the way in which it is kept. London never thinks of things of that kind. Some of the very best districts of London have what they call their mews in behind, very much like our back alleys. They run between blocks, and on those back alleys or mews you will find private stables, public stables, locksmiths and plumbers and all sorts of people that you want every day and like to have near by. They do not hurt the property in the slightest. They help it, if they are properly managed.

So the restriction question ought to be managed in the spirit of understanding and common sense, and we ought to be very, very careful as to how we put general and sweeping restrictions on property.

Now the other point that I wanted to touch upon was the absolute necessity for continuity, a thing that is utterly disregarded. We never can count from administration to administration on any continuity of effort or thought. A thing is carefully planned by one body of men, and its successors very carefully go to work and see to what extent they can undo everything that has the horrid taint of the predecessor in office. That is a curse to our communities and it is a curse to this country.

Four or five years ago the government at Washington undertook what was looked upon at that time as the most important architectural thing that had been undertaken in Washington since the building of the capitol. It was the building of three great governmental buildings that were intended to form an impressive and magnificent architectural group — the Department of Justice, of Labor and Commerce and of State. The Secretary of the Treasury immediately decided that it was a subject for a competition. Without paying the slightest attention to precedent,

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without attempting to find out how such things were done, without consulting even with the trained force that he had at his own right hand, he determined immediately upon the character of the competition. And as it was a very important competition, instead of saying: "We will select only the very best men in the country to come into this competition," he said: "It is very important; we must have a great many men in it."

So he invited 60 men to compete, 20 each, for each building. That was the first mistake made, simply because he did n't care to find out what was the best way to do, and the competition was held. Those three buildings were all to be contiguous. It was essential that they should be three buildings in one, that is, should form a group. But there were three separate sets of competitions. Of course it happened that in all the great centers three architects would find that they had been invited on each one of the three groups. Those men we will say, being friends, got together and said: "We are not competing with each other. Let us work together and see that our three plans that go in are at least harmonious."

When the Secretary of the Treasury heard of this, he said: "We must stop this thing. This is outrageous. We must arrange the juries so that no consideration whatsoever shall be given to the fact that three of the plans of the three different buildings may possibly harmonize. We will have three independent juries"; and the three independent juries were instructed with the utmost care that they must have no communication with each other while they were in Washington. They must not talk to each other or see each other or say anything whatsoever about the plans that they had seen, lest perchance they should select designs that harmonized.

The competition was awarded for those three great buildings, and the government pledged itself, so far as it could, that the three men who had honestly won that competition, and who had been told in the program that the

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winners would be the architects, should be so appointed to carry out the work. That was the only remuneration they received; there was no money payment to any of the competitors. The Secretary of the Treasury drew up and signed the strongest contract he could with those competitors, but before he could carry out anything he went out of office, and a new manager came in who knew not Joseph, and he had entirely different ideas as to the way in which government architecture should be run. His feeling was that architects were a perfectly unnecessary evil. We all know they are a necessary evil, but he felt that they were an entirely unnecessary evil and the Department could run this thing themselves perfectly well. He introduced a bill in Congress last winter which distinctly gave the permission to have a competition all over again for the building of the Department of Justice. Now a competition already had been held by the government, an award by the government and a contract made by the government. He said, and I dare say quite rightly, the government has no legal authority to promise that the winner would do that building, because Congress had not yet made an appropriation for the building, and therefore it could not be agreed with the man who won that competition that he should carry it out. When the matter came up in the Senate, it was defeated, and it was defeated simply and solely on the ground of its being an act of ill faith on the part of the government — particularly appropriate for the Department of Justice.

Now that lack of continuity is at the root of nearly all of the trouble that we have in the building of our towns. It is the one thing that makes it difficult for us to carry out any scheme. The moment that it is laid out, and seems in a fair way to get established, some other authority steps in and then you have all your work to do over again. Even in the city of Washington, with that splendid plan, it has been nothing but fight, fight, fight from start up to now so that it shall not be upset; not that it shall

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be carried out absolutely as it was laid out, but that it shall not be absolutely disregarded and something built that is going permanently to injure it. And continuity is the thing that we must fight for if we are going to get any practical results out of our city planning.

We have talked and talked about city planning for years, and we have come to a point where I do believe we are within reasonable sight of actual accomplishment. And if that is so, I believe in my heart that we have got to make some fundamental change that shall insure continuity in the work that we undertake. I feel quite confident with the body of men and women here tonight, and what they represent throughout the country, that this organization will be able to accomplish it.

THE CITY PLAN OF DETROIT

EDWARD H. BENNETT

Consultant in City Planning, Chicago

ALTHOUGH I think I agree in the main with what has been said, on the one hand, with regard to the engineering necessities involved in city planning and, on the other, of the necessity for common sense controlling the study of the same subject, it is fair to say that I believe that these considerations affect the program of our needs with regard to a city plan; but into this question there enters another very important consideration, and that is the question of composition or design of a city plan, the interpretation of these needs and the welding together in a comprehensive manner of all the factors involved, so that a plan may be a vital living entity.

The plan of the city of Paris, if placed on the screen tonight beside the plan of any of the large cities of this country today, would indicate exactly what I mean. There is realized therein such a general relation in the parts of the city that its expression becomes a composition. There are dominant notes in this composition. The Place de la Concorde takes its place virtually in the center of the composition; it could hardly be anywhere else. The Place de l'Etoile is the dominant note at the west end balanced by the Place de la Nation at the other end. The practical requirements are all met, but there is that evidence of actual sense of design in the plan that is perhaps instinctive in the Latin race.

My address will be illustrated by lantern slides. I had hoped to use large diagrams, but I find that they will not

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be visible and must beg the indulgence of the audience in an effort to coördinate my notes with the slides.

My subject is the city plan of Detroit. It will be well, however, to say a little on the subject of the original plan of Detroit known as the Governor and Judges Plan of 1805. This first slide has been made from the original document in the archives at Washington. It consists of a series of compositions of streets radiating from various centers placed at no great distance one from the other. I understand from Mr. Moore that it was the intention to duplicate this system almost indefinitely as the city of Detroit developed. The Governor and Judges Plan, however, commonly so called, is that which was published in 1831. It retains a couple of the original centers, but is developed other than originally intended. It may be said to be an admirable composition of city streets in itself; it is decorative in quality; its scope, however, is limited. Many of its lines today have been stamped out, and it is unfortunate that it was not retained in its entirety and developed with understanding of the growing needs of the community. Such a development was essential, as even this plan of 1831 provides for only a very limited extension and with its composition of many radials converging from the river front at the Circus is fundamentally wrong, unless complemented by even more radials from the same point or thereabouts toward the country.

It had been better if the plan had been turned about, allowing the main arteries to fan outward. Even so good avenues of communication with the river front should have been maintained. The plan of 1853 indicates the incorporation in the street plan of the three great radials Michigan, Grand River, Gratiot and the extension of Woodward, Fort and Jefferson, originally highways and transportation routes.

The great radials are, however, poorly connected with the center of the city, and as they lie are insufficient for the

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general circulation and expansion of the city. One great fault of the plan of 1831 was its lack of provision for extension. Another was that of the lack of recognition of the necessity of dominant direction in its main streets. Foreknowledge alone of the necessities of a modern city would have prevented mistakes, and the growth of Detroit has been of such a rapid nature that such foreknowledge was hardly to be expected.

Again, centers of distribution of freight and their relation to the business district could hardly be forecast, also centers of circulation and their connections. Such matters, however, must be fully considered in a modern city plan.

As a result the nucleus of congestion, through which traffic passes with difficulty, so common in the average modern city, has been allowed to grow in Detroit. No provision has been made with the definite purpose of passing traffic around this center. Fortunately, however, the center was located at some distance back from the water front, and thus there is left a means for creating a reasonable circulation around it and of emphasizing and developing a general dominant direction of business streets in the system. This direction is east and west, or west-east, paralleling for a way at least the Detroit River and fanning out on each side of the center.

In spite of the criticisms that may be made of this plan, one cannot look without distress on its mutilation and on the waste of opportunities afforded by it for more comprehensive treatment, and also for the waste of opportunity in the effects offered by its streets for street architecture of an exceptional character. It is true that the question here enters of control with regard to the design of the architecture.

Economics not only can be disregarded in this matter, but must control. Nevertheless it is not impossible that the two should go hand in hand. The Campus Martius is a striking example of a wasted opportunity. The City

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Hall and County Building bear no relation one to the other, and in spite of the unusual opportunities offered by the broad spaces, or perhaps more especially by reason of these broad spaces so fully revealing the irregular conditions, chaos reigns. The lines of the Campus which might lead to the County Building not only lead nowhere, but in themselves are a jumble of irregular architectural outlines. The City Hall, a low building of formal character, although reasonably well placed on the Campus, no longer controls it; its boundaries on the contrary extend to the great façades of the tall buildings growing up around it, again without regularity or general design.

Again, the Grand Circle or Circus presents a superb opportunity, and until the tall buildings intruded on its outline presented an appearance of real beauty. The architecture, for the most part of moderate height and simple outline, was dominated by the outlines of the magnificent trees on the Circus.

While it is true that the lower buildings around such a Plaza are more beautiful, the exclusion of the tall buildings from the Circus is not possible under economic conditions at least; however, a cornice height should be established and certain points, such as those bordering Woodward Avenue, should be emphasized as dominants in the general composition of the Plaza. So much could be brought about by control without any sacrifice on the part of business, or perhaps it might be achieved by the property owners themselves once the opportunity has been realized of massing the general effects of the individual buildings.

The plan of Detroit was prepared under the auspices of the City Plan and Improvement Commission in 1912 and is a general plan. It might almost be called a preliminary plan and has not been studied in detail nor have the drawings necessary to the explanation or illustration of the project been made. The plan is what might be called

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rough hewn and should in my judgment receive the necessary polishing.

The result of further study would be largely that of the development of details, but it is possible that it might involve a radical change of even an important element.

From early days the physical characteristics of Detroit have been shaped by its transportation facilities. The center of the city, which occupies today practically the same place that it occupied a hundred years ago, lies at the focus of the main street arteries. These street arteries have grown out of the old highways and overland transportation routes. At first close to the Detroit River was the main continental east and west traffic route; it was later reënforced in its position by the railroads coming in from the east and west along the river bank. At one time these roads coming in to the Campus Martius threatened, had they been perpetuated, either to force the business center into some other location or else to create a throttling condition on the business heart. One of these roads came down Michigan Street and the other down Gratiot Avenue to the Campus Martius. Had they stayed there they would have changed completely the physical aspect of Detroit.

In 1853 this business center extended along Woodward Avenue and south from Jefferson Avenue and a short distance eastward on this street.

In 1855 the business district centered around the Campus Martius, extending a short way up Woodward Avenue as far as the circle, a considerable distance out along Michigan Avenue, a short distance along Grand River, Gratiot and Jefferson.

In 1905 the city had grown uniformly in every direction. On the west the limits were Artillery Avenue, on the north Euclid and on the east Van Dyke Avenue. The business center had become more intense around the Campus Martius. Industries were beginning to start along the railroads near the center, along the belt line in the northern

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part of the city, along the shore east of the city and along the railroads which run to the west. Business extended in a continuous line along Michigan, Grand River and Gratiot, but only a short distance along Woodward.

It is curious to note the beginning about this time of the deterioration of Woodward Avenue property for residential purposes. It is also interesting to note that industry is beginning at this period to attack the east side of the business district in the neighborhood of the Court House.

In 1911 there appears the first of the heavy industry along the river bank west of the city, in the neighborhood of the River Rouge. The belt line has become more or less lined with industry and the district lying away to the east of the city and of Belle Isle on the Detroit Terminal Railroad has been attacked by industry, and it should be noted here that Detroit has reached a point where the use of its territory from now on will be determined by the presence or absence of a railroad in a given locality.

In general the street system of Detroit may be called rectangular, surrounding the area covered in the 1831 plan, which had its inspiration in the plan of Washington by L'Enfant and which covers only the present business area; the further planning of the street system has been governed by the direction of the old property lines dating back to the French occupation of Canada.

There are six main arteries which radiate from this central section. The streets which run at right angles to the river and parallel to what may be considered the strongest of these radials, Woodward Avenue, are, except for the portions where they are interrupted by railroad properties, in general good and ample in number, although rather scanty in width. They are in every case laid out at right angles to the river parallel to the old French land lines. The streets which intersect these at right angles have no continuity, no order and give the basis for strong criticism of the Detroit street system, for without these

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the rest of the system, no matter how well designed, loses tremendously in strength. It might be noted here that no effort is being made at the present time to control the platting of the new subdivisions which from time to time are added to the city.

The plan of Detroit recognizes the facts already brought out and aims (a) to develop the radial system outward, (b) to improve the communication with the river front and (c) to provide good connections between the central city and these main thoroughfares both radial and rectangular, also in so far as possible with the minor streets. Many alternatives were tried out, but the recommendation was to provide a circuit of the most economic nature on the fringe of the central district and the outlying development.

It is a fact shown by the recorded plans that the mass of business has been throttled as to general expansion and it has run out along the radials in an excessive degree. It is believed that the street changes proposed would render more flexible the entire downtown circulation and allow free expansion of business. The plan strongly supplements Woodward Avenue with laterals.

Improved east and west main arteries are also recommended, connections between points of vital interest and further circuits to care for circulation at a future date.

The study is carried out into the surrounding territory and a complete plan of main arteries laid down over an area suitable for the accommodation of a large population. The plan includes a study of transportation, parks and playgrounds and a special development of the Detroit River front.

The street system of Detroit has been studied in its relation to accessibility from the business district to the outlying sections, from the point of view of direct east and west crosstown movement from the southwest to northeast and from the northwest to southeast. It has been studied from the point of view of the loosening up of the

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traffic congestion in the central district and for the passing around the central district of as much travel as possible, both at the present time and in the future.

With respect to accessibility into the central area from all parts of the city the following statements may be made:

1. That Woodward Avenue and Gratiot Avenue are carrying far too much travel for their size. Each of them requires relieving arteries.

2. That the means of access to the center of the city are freer than is the movement in the center itself, so that the first consideration should be the relief of the downtown district.

3. That Jefferson Avenue together with Fort Street will undoubtedly become, as time goes on, very heavily traveled streets.

4. That the presence of railroads to the west of the city has had the effect of shutting out proper access to Michigan Avenue and it is fortunate that Ferndale and Dykes avenues and Parker Street form what is practically a diagonal artery, substituting and aiding Michigan Avenue.

It should also be noted here that owing to lack of proper later development the original plan in the center of the city forms an obstacle to any movement across the city for a strip along the river, varying in width from one-fourth to one-half mile. This is emphasized by the presence on the east of a cemetery and on the west by the presence of railroads. It is impossible for a vehicle to pass directly across town in the area which lies between High Street and Fort Street without winding through the crowded and congested streets of the central business district.

In the study of the diagonal movements across town it was found that in the main there were no ways of traversing the city in these directions except those which led through the central district. In the sections a comparatively short distance from the center the paving is poor

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and the streets consequently little used. Many alternative plans were worked out relieving each of these bad conditions referred to above.

DOWNTOWN STREET TRAFFIC

It is impossible without further appropriation to go fully into the details of the downtown street congestion. From such information as it has been possible to gather and from figures taken and observations made it is evident that there are few cities in the country which at rush periods of the day have more intense and concentrated street traffic than has Detroit. This arises from the following causes:

1. The nature of the street system in and around the business district.
2. The concentration by means of diagonal arteries at practically one point of all street traffic coming to and leaving the business center.
3. The dead ending of the streets by the river.
4. The narrowness of the streets in the business center.
5. The improper handling of street cars. This arises from the lack of proper routing of cars.

A glance at the tables of figures giving the number of cars operating on the different lines and the number of cars passing certain points in the downtown district in the rush hours instantly shows that it is practically impossible for either the railroad company or the police authorities to handle more cars on the streets. It is not a question of more cars, it is a question of the capacity of the streets to handle them. For example, at the present time during the rush hours certain streets intersecting Woodward Avenue in the downtown sections are closed to other kinds of traffic and special routing of vehicular traffic takes place.

It is strongly recommended that a thorough study be given by a responsible commission to the question of this downtown street traffic. The study of these traffic condi-

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tions in Detroit would certainly result in reducing the cost of traffic control both at this point and at others. It will require the coöperation of the street railway companies, of the police and other city officials. This would certainly be a relief at other points in the city.

STREET CARS

The following general criticism can be made of the operation of street cars in Detroit:

1. The dead ending of the Woodward Avenue street cars near the Michigan Central Station.

2. The lack of through east and west lines in the section of the city north of High Street. At present it is easier in a great many cases for people who want to get from one side of the city to the other across town to come down into the center of the city by means of diagonals and go out, thus proceeding by means of other diagonal lines to some point near their destination. If crosstown lines were put in, it would have the effect, in addition to the saving of time to many travellers, of giving a certain amount of relief to traffic in the downtown district.

3. North and south car lines in the outlying sections are very inadequate, and in some cases it is necessary for people to make detours in order to accomplish a comparatively short journey.

4. There is possibly no city in the country which can show an example of such intolerable downtown street car congestion during the rush hours as Detroit. Besides the fact that the cars themselves are jammed away beyond their capacity there is the fact that the streets are so filled with street cars that it would be impossible to put any more cars on the tracks, and even the cars that are there now require special track regulation during the rush hours. To relieve the congestion in the cars themselves the only solution would seem to lie in the use of more cars. This is impossible since they could not be handled in the streets.

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The only alternative is to place most if not all cars in a subway in the central district.

The above notes on the plan are limited to the subject of the street system; for consideration of the other important subjects treated, attention is called to the plans submitted.

Proposed Playground System.—This diagram shows a scheme for the arrangement of the necessary playground sites, together with additional playgrounds in connection with the schools. This study is based on the study of the necessities of the future population and the experience of the cities in this country that are the most advanced in the study of the needs of playground development in metropolitan centers, including that of New York, Chicago and Kansas City.

Diagram of the River Front.—This diagram is a general indication of suggested development for the river front of the city of Detroit. It does not contemplate interfering with any of the business activities of this front, but indicates a method by which these interests may be benefited whilst giving the public greater access to the shores without conflicting with these interests. It is proposed that there shall be a river road running along the front wherever possible, that this roadway shall be, when within the center of the city, at an elevation above the present quay and that it be connected with the main north and south thoroughfares indicated on the plan.

Special attention is called, first, to the suggestion for a complete system of dock development in the vicinity of the mouth of the River Rouge, which system should be made accessible to all the railroads by means of a belt line, and, secondly, to the proposed treatment for the foot of Woodward Avenue and adjacent streets. It is thought that this scheme or a modification of it may be carried out in coöperation with the steamboat companies owning dock rights along the shore. This is the gateway from the river to the heart of the city and no efforts should

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be spared to make it both convenient and attractive. Thirdly, the development of the shore north of Belle Isle Bridge. Here it is proposed to develop a series of lagoons inclosed by islands in the river similar to that proposed for the south shore of Chicago. This development may be carried out without great expense.

This river front treatment, however, represents only a part of the Detroit River, for which I have suggested a general treatment from one end to the other on both sides of the river. Its complete development will require the coöperation of the Canadian cities bordering the river and perhaps that of the government. But the river is one of such great beauty and is such an asset to the population lining its shores that no effort should be spared to developing it to its maximum utility and in its finest possible expression.

There are also other great considerations which it has not been possible to touch; of these the greatest is perhaps the provision for future expansion of the city in the outlying districts.

These notes are necessarily a very limited explanation of the plan of Detroit, involving as it does almost endless consideration of detail. I hope, however, what I have said has given a general idea of the problems involved and their proposed treatment.

SIX YEARS OF CITY PLANNING IN THE UNITED STATES

FLAVEL SHURTLEFF, Esq.

Secretary of the Conference, Boston

THIS six years' narrative of city planning in the United States starts with the year 1909, because it is the secretary's report to the members of the National Conference on City Planning, which held its first meeting in Washington in May, 1909, and it is in part a record of the influence of that conference and subsequent conferences on the city planning movement. Entirely aside from this special reason, from 1909 city planning events came with such rapidity that a general movement "to lay out new cities or extend old ones to the best advantage of their population as regards economy, health and beauty" may be said to date from that year, and it is interesting also that in this year the British Parliament passed the Town Planning Act, which started a new era in town planning in Great Britain.

The considerable body of town planning literature before 1909 gives evidence of much interest in the subject, but the dominant note of this writing in the twenty-year period just before the calling of the First Conference on City Planning in the United States is esthetic. It reflects the particular phase of planning activity which created the great municipal park systems beginning with Central Park in New York in 1850, and marked most notably by the metropolitan park system of Boston with its ten thousand acres, and the Chicago and Kansas City park system. Much of the inspiration for the activity of this period came from the World's Fair of 1909 and the report to Congress in 1902

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of the Commission of Experts appointed to draw up a plan for the development of Washington. The influence of the Washington report can be traced directly in the crop of city planning reports that came out in the next few years, in all of which the grouping of public buildings in civic centers and the establishment of park systems received most consideration.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ASPECTS

This esthetic note is almost absent in the papers and discussions of the First Conference on City Planning. It is apparent from the most casual reading of the report of the proceedings that the stress is put on planning as an economic remedy for municipal waste and for social misery. The call for the conference came from the New York Committee on Congestion of Population, a group of energetic and efficient social reformers much interested in improving housing conditions. A composite city planning program worked out of the papers delivered would read something like this:

1. A city plan should be preceded by a survey of the conditions in each city, and particularly the conditions of working and living.

2. A city plan should establish: (a) an adequate and differentiated system of streets; (b) a properly coördinated transportation system; (c) zones for industries and zones for residences, with healthful and attractive conditions in each; (d) ample recreational facilities.

It is very significant that the two planning reports which came out in the same year of this conference, the Chicago and Boston reports, which have been most quoted both here and abroad, gave a great deal of attention to the economic aspects of city planning. The Boston report, which outlines a plan for the improvement of the entire metropolitan district, contains the first comprehensive study of railroads,

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terminals and docks and their relation to the city plan, and these subjects, together with a very thorough study of the street system of the district, occupy two hundred of the three hundred pages of the report. The report on the study for a civic center is contained in fifteen pages.

The same emphasis on the economic and social side of city planning is kept in the Second Conference, which met in Rochester in 1910, and has been so marked in all subsequent conferences that this year the executive committee thought the criticism well founded that the esthetic side had been neglected and arranged a session on civic design.

LEGISLATION

Referring again to the First Conference, one is struck with the remarkable accuracy with which the future of city planning was forecasted. Hardly a phase of the recent city planning activity but was discussed at Washington in 1909. Then there was but one city planning commission in the United States, at Hartford, Conn., organized the year before, but Mr. Frederick L. Ford, a member of the commission, speaking on "The Scope of City Planning in the United States," said: "The work of city planning will be undertaken by official commissions with authority to employ expert advice and funds to make investigations and reports." And Mr. John Quincy Adams went further and said: "A permanent city plan commission, serving without pay and appointed in a way to remove the commission from political influence, should have complete control of the future development of the city and should be able to enforce its decisions."

PLAN COMMISSIONS

City planning legislation has borne out to the full this prophecy and these recommendations. In 1909 came the Wisconsin act and the Chicago ordinance, and in the next year Detroit by ordinance and Baltimore by legislative act

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created plan commissions with power to employ experts and make reports, but as yet the plan commission had no real control over the city's future development.

In 1911 an act of New Jersey authorized an additional executive department, to be known as the department of city planning, for cities of the first class, and Pennsylvania did the same for cities of the second class. The Pennsylvania act begins to approach the goal suggested by Mr. Adams at the Washington conference:

Sec. 2. The clerks of councils shall, upon introduction, furnish to the City Planning Commission, for its consideration, a copy of all ordinances and bills relating to the location of any public building of the city, and to the location, extension, widening, enlargement, ornamentation and parking of any street, boulevard, parkway, park, playground or other public grounds, and to the vacation of any street, or other alteration of the city plan of streets and highways, and to the location of any bridge, tunnel or subway, or of any surface, underground or elevated railway.

Sec. 5. All plans, plots or replots of lands laid out in building lots, and the streets, alleys or other portions of the same intended to be dedicated to public use, or for the use of purchasers or owners of lots fronting thereon or adjacent thereto, and located within the city limits, shall be submitted to the City Planning Commission and approved by it before it shall be recorded. And it shall be unlawful to receive or record such plan in any public office unless the same shall bear thereon, by endorsement or otherwise, the approval of the City Planning Commission. . . .

In 1913 a plan commission act for New York and one for third class cities in Pennsylvania were passed and the first metropolitan plan commission was created under Pennsylvania legislation authorizing such a commission for the district of Philadelphia. In the same year Massachusetts legislation made boards mandatory in all cities and towns over ten thousand, legislation which was influenced without

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doubt by the holding of the Fourth Conference on City Planning at Boston in 1912. Finally, in 1914, came the legislation which fully realizes the recommendations of the Washington conference in giving the plan commission power to enforce its decision. It is found in this language of the Cleveland ordinance:

Sec. 4. *Public Works.* Hereafter no public building, harbor, bridge, viaduct, street fixture or other structure and appurtenance shall be located, constructed, erected, removed, relocated or altered until and unless such plan, design or location shall have been submitted to and approved by the Commission; and no such work when completed shall be accepted by the City until and unless it shall have been approved by the Commission as provided in Section 77 of the City Charter.

Thus the seed sown in 1909 at the Washington conference has produced in less than six years state legislation authorizing plan commissions in Connecticut, Maryland, Wisconsin, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Nebraska and California, and under these acts or under ordinances about one hundred plan commissions have been established.

ZONING

At the First Conference, speaking on the subject of a national constructive program for city planning, Mr. Henry Morgenthau, now Ambassador to Turkey, said: "We can make city plans establishing factory zones and residence zones." Before 1909, cities doubtless could, under the police power, segregate offensive occupations, but no attempt to establish industrial and residence districts had come to general notice. Los Angeles, in 1909, by ordinance created industrial and residential districts, and the constitutionality of this ordinance was sanctioned by the supreme court of California in three well considered cases. At the

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City Planning Conference at Boston in 1912, zoning or districting was made the subject of a very exhaustive paper and the applicability of German methods to American conditions was fully discussed; legislation on the subject came the next year and certain cities in Wisconsin, Minnesota and New York were given power to set aside districts from which industrial occupation could be excluded. Syracuse, Utica and possibly other cities in New York took advantage of the New York act, which was, however, repealed in the spring of this year. The other acts, we believe, are still operative.

EXCESS TAKING OF LAND

Long before 1909 it was well recognized that the chief obstacle to accomplishment in city planning was the high cost of the acquisition of land by the municipality. Most cities were pretty heavily burdened financially by the necessity of providing for current expenses, and serious outlay for very necessary improvements in the street system could usually be postponed by the argument that the extra financial burden would be too heavy. Some cities, particularly in the Middle West, had distributed the cost of the acquisition of land for park systems by assessing the cost of them as a special assessment on benefited lands.

Searching for a way out of this difficulty, the legislature of Massachusetts in 1903 appointed a commission to investigate the European methods of acquiring land, and particularly the taking by purchase or condemnation of more land than was actually necessary for the physical improvement, with the right to resell the excess. This commission reported a bill, which became law in 1904, known as the Remnant Act, in which the principle of excess taking was first incorporated. The same principle appears in Ohio legislation for 1904, in a Virginia act in 1906, in Connecticut in 1907, Pennsylvania in 1907 and Maryland in 1908.

At the First Planning Conference the subject of excess

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condemnation was very thoroughly discussed in a brief on its constitutionality by Andrew Wright Crawford, Esq., then assistant city solicitor of Philadelphia. The advantage of excess condemnation in giving a municipality physical control over the land adjoining either a highway or a park improvement was then generally admitted, but its financial expediency and its doubtful constitutionality have made municipalities very timid in its use. The constitutional difficulty was remedied, at least in part, by an amendment to the state constitution of Massachusetts in 1911, in Wisconsin and Ohio in 1912 and in New York in 1913, but up to the present year cities were so much in doubt as to where they would come out financially by experimenting with excess condemnation that there is no instance of its use that has come to the writer's knowledge. The city of Philadelphia purchased in excess of need under the act of 1907, but unfortunately there was no constitutional amendment in Pennsylvania, and the supreme court found the act of 1907 unconstitutional. The city of New York has within a few weeks perfected the machinery for using the excess condemnation law, and we should expect a test of the principle within the next year or two.

EDUCATION

At the First Conference the suggestion was well received that a city planning exhibit would be the most effective method of stimulating public interest. There had been some municipal exhibits in which city planning had been featured, but the first exhibit of city planning which could be described as at all comprehensive was that in Philadelphia at the time of the Third Conference on City Planning in 1911. The value of this kind of publicity was so apparent that New York City organized an exhibit in 1913, much of the material of which has been used in the excellent traveling exhibit of the American City Bureau, which has been shown in many American cities and has journeyed as far as Santiago.

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Harvard College in 1909 recognized that if the general public needed schooling in city planning, so did the city planners, and established the first systematic instruction in city planning in connection with its graduate school work in landscape architecture. Courses have since been established in other universities, notably in Columbia and the University of Illinois. The Chicago Plan Commission in 1912 conceived the idea of grounding boys and girls in city planning by the introduction of a textbook on the Chicago plan in the common schools.

RESULTS

There is left to consider the actual physical achievements which can be traced to planning principles or more directly to the recent city planning propaganda.

No complete list is attempted of the fine achievements of cities which, like Cleveland, New York and San Francisco, and among the smaller cities Des Moines, and Springfield, Mass., have constructed monumental public buildings as a part of a civic group. Except as the grouping of buildings makes for convenience, these achievements can be cited chiefly as the result of the esthetic emphasis on city planning which antedates our narrative.

The radical changes in long established street systems of our largest cities, illustrated by the extension of Seventh Avenue in New York, the widening of Pleasant and Avery streets in Boston, the widening of Twelfth Street in Chicago, the cutting of diagonals through the rectangular streets of Philadelphia and Newark, have all come in the last five years. And equally striking are the great improvements in rail transportation and the establishment of new railroad terminals in New York, Kansas City, Chicago and Detroit in this same period.

These are some of the answers to the question at the Washington conference, How can the street and transportation system be made to produce a more convenient city?

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But they are rather the spectacular results⁴ of the city planning movement and, apart from making their localities more convenient places to work in, their value is to show the fearful cost of replanting and the necessity of forecasting a city's future needs.

The less striking but more far-reaching result of recent planning activity, and certainly the most direct contribution of the conferences on city planning, is the acceptance in cities big and small of the planning principle, the long look ahead in the lay out of street systems, the location of public buildings, the establishment of parks and playgrounds, the construction of the street surface, and in all the other physical elements that produce the city.

The conception of the city as a unit, a strongly knit federation of neighborhoods, is one that the Conference on City Planning did not originate, but one that it has taken every opportunity to make a part of city administration. Just as the inspiration for the esthetic in city planning came from the World's Fair and the Washington report, so the precedent for orderly city extension is found in long established municipal agencies which have extended the official street plan far in advance of private development and have insisted, so far as legally possible, on the adherence to this established plan by private developers. This practice dates from the act of the Colonial Assembly in Pennsylvania in 1720 which authorized "surveyors and regulators to establish streets and building lines in Philadelphia" and in the efficient administration of this and succeeding acts by the present Philadelphia Bureau of Surveys. It is found again in the Charter of 1892 for Greater New York, which created a bureau charged with the completion of the plan of the entire city, at least in regard to the streets and parks, in the Boston Board of Survey Act of 1891, in the Baltimore Topographical Bureau ordinance of 1893, and the same principle is incorporated in all the legislation creating city plan commissions.

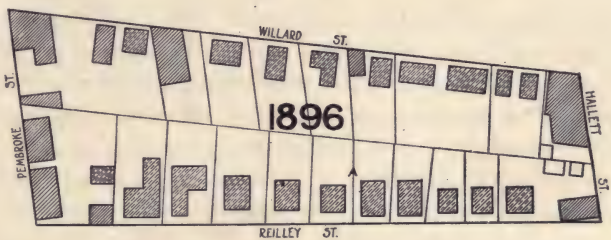
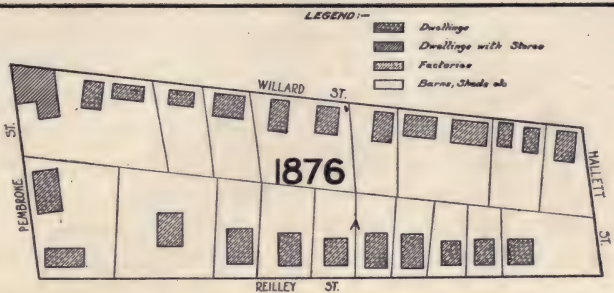
THE BEST METHODS OF LAND SUBDIVISION

JOHN NOLEN

*Fellow of the American Society of Landscape Architects
Cambridge, Mass.*

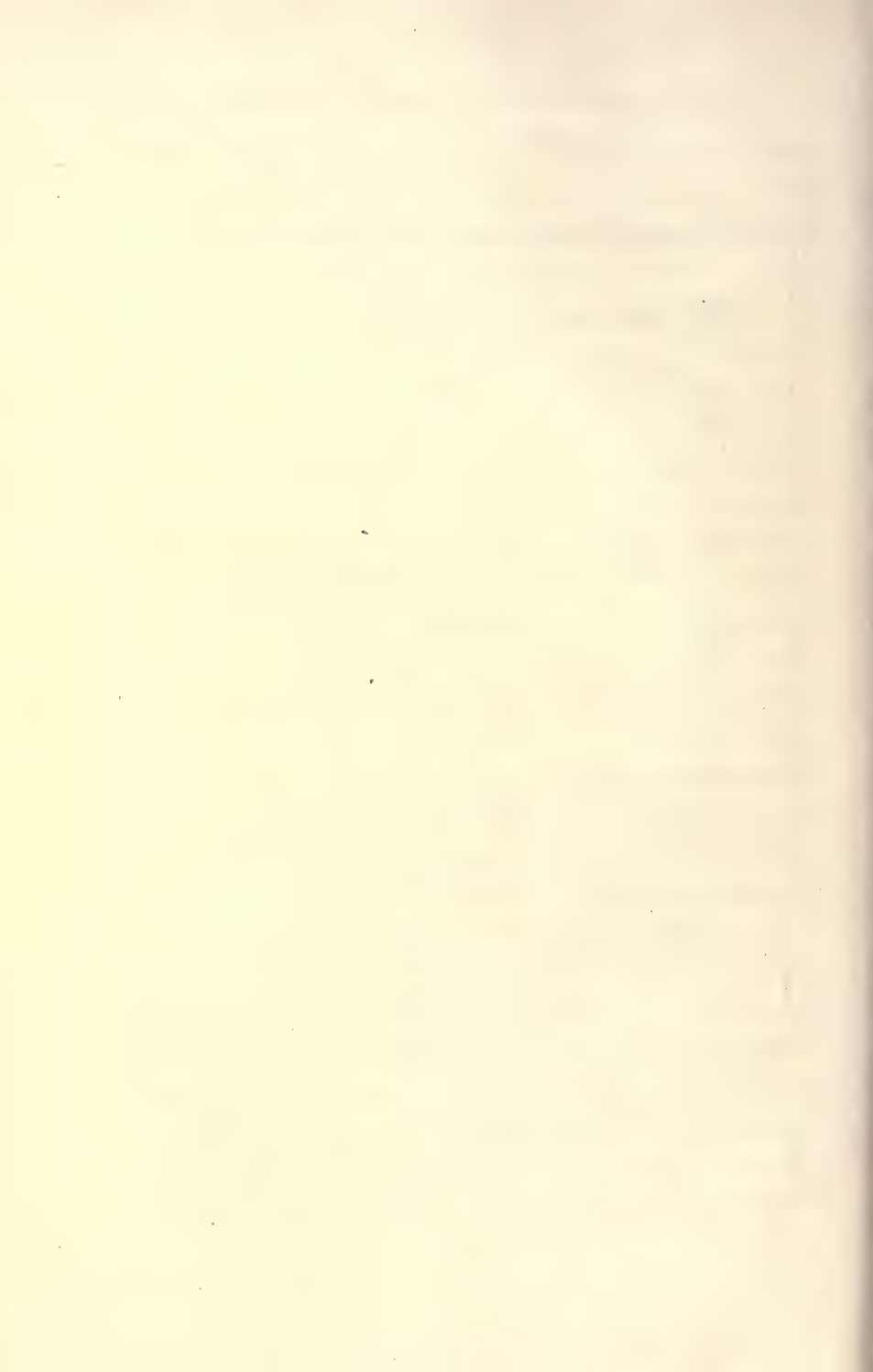
ONLY a brief word of explanation is necessary with regard to the subject for the sessions this morning and this afternoon on land subdivision. At the conclusion of the Conference in Toronto last year the executive committee decided that this year only a few subjects would be taken up, practically only two or three, that more attention would be given to each one and that more time especially would be allowed for the informal discussion of the subjects selected; the formal papers being brief, but based upon a fairly careful investigation of the subject carried on by a special committee during the year. Furthermore, the idea was that these subjects would be studied not for a single year, but for a number of years, and that we should start out by recognizing that we were attacking a rather big job and that we could only hope, with busy men on the committee, to make progress during the year and not reach a definite conclusion.

With regard to this particular subject, the best methods of land subdivision, the instructions to the committee as stated in the final circular sent out are broadly to gather and digest any information likely to be of practical assistance to those responsible for maintaining and improving the quality of land subdivision plans. But the committee decided to concentrate its efforts in the beginning upon the study of the most fundamental question in its opinion of the whole subject; namely, What are the best standard lot dimensions to adopt under various typical conditions com-



STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT
OF BLOCKS BETWEEN
REILLEY & WILLARD STS.
IN BRIDGEPORT CONN.

SCALE 3041"
JOHN MOLEN LANDSCAPE ARCHITECT
HAYWARD SQUARE - CAMBRIDGE, MASS.
1914



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monly found in America? And the method of procedure was to gather the data or information with regard to the land subdivision work which had actually been done, historically, we might say, in the United States, to get the facts of these land subdivisions. And in order that the information or conclusions might be as convincing as possible and that the elements of chance in locality should be eliminated, a variety of cities was selected representing large cities and small cities, old cities and relatively new cities, cities in different sections of the country having grown up under different controlling conditions and for somewhat different purposes, and cities with different types of topography.

The data which Mr. Goodrich is going to present for the committee includes fairly definite returns from 16 of these cities, in which local committees coöperating with the general committee have made careful, valuable and painstaking studies. The results which the committee sought were to be summarized under three general heads: the physical results, the social results, or sociological results perhaps I should say, and the financial results.

It might be added, furthermore, that the committee was of the opinion that in taking up this problem it was getting at the most important single topic in city planning; important, first, because it is absolutely fundamental in city planning and, secondly, because it is the active phase of city planning which goes steadily on.

I think it was John Burns in one of the London meetings who said that in England every 15 years, in other words in less than a generation, 500,000 acres of agricultural land were being subdivided for the purpose of industry and residence, and the way in which these 500,000 acres were subdivided and developed would become one of the controlling factors of the civilization which occupied and used them. The figures for the United States would be still larger.

Mr. Goodrich has given a great deal of time to sum-

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marizing the returns which have come in, many of them rather late, from the various local committees. It is his opinion and the opinion of the committee that the material in this shape can be much better appreciated in the printed proceedings of the conference and that the presentation by him now of the results, with Mr. Arthur A. Shurtleff's assistance at the blackboard, and the devotion of the rest of the time to discussion will be of very much more value to the members of the conference than attempting to read in detail this rather vast amount of local statistical material. Mr. Goodrich has furthermore selected what seemed to him the three essential topics; namely, the size of the lots, especially with regard to depth, alleys and restrictions, as the subjects to concentrate attention upon. Mr. Goodrich will now be good enough to present informally the report of the committee.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE

PRESENTED BY E. P. GOODRICH

Consulting Engineer, Borough of Manhattan

LOTS are to be considered in their availability for residences primarily. Practically all of the plats which are now being made by real estate owners are for residence purposes. Naturally that is their primary ideal. It is also the idea of the person who makes the first purchase that he is buying a home or a place for a home in the majority of cases.

Evidences, however, exist in every city of the United States that the plats which were originally designed for residences are being converted into commercial use (or industrial use occasionally), more largely into stores, sometimes into factories — tenant factories; and sometimes they are being wiped out and large mercantile districts are being constructed.

The city planner, therefore, either in the form of the expert or the city planning commission, must constantly keep in mind this possibility of conversion and must see that the real estate developer when he lays out his original plat does not so arrange it as to make it practically impossible of conversion to other use, except under special conditions, such as will be discussed a little bit later and such as might arise should the zoning idea come into force in the United States.

Three points, therefore, must be kept in mind in any examination: residence use of the lot, its commercial use and its convertibility, which latter is incidental to the transition from one to the other.

Under residence use there are again three classes to be

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considered: what may be called high class residences, in which the lots are of indefinite extent; middle class residences, in which the plotting becomes determinate; and plots for workingmen's houses, in which the size is of considerable importance, because workingmen cannot afford to pay for the amenities of life in the sense in which the other classes can.

In order to bring the information most concretely before you I will first state the conclusions which have been drawn from the data and then adduce more or less of the supporting evidence. While it may be a little dry reading, I would like to list to you the cities in which committees have coöperated to secure this information, so that you may see the geographical location and the size of the city:

Berkeley, Cal., a typical high class residence town, but not large; Boston, Mass., the New England metropolis; Bridgeport, Conn., an industrial type of relatively small size; Brookline, Mass., again a residence type; Chicago, the metropolis of the Middle States; Cleveland, a typical large city on the Lakes; Detroit, where we are today; Kansas City, a further Western city of some size; Louisville, Ky., a typical Southern city, as nearly as could be secured; Montreal, one of the two Canadian cities considered; New York, in which we must have some interest, although the conditions there perhaps are not ideal from the point of view of every other city in the United States; Newark, which has independent methods, an entity of its own, although very closely following New York, as you will see; Philadelphia, which is unique in housing conditions, as you all know; Syracuse, another small sized typical Eastern city; Vancouver, a typical Northwestern city which typifies conditions in Canada and the Northwest; Washington, D. C., concerning which we all have the belief that ideals were followed as nearly as possible in the original layout of the city.

I have tried as far as possible to give a digest, a pure

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digest. Sometimes information has been secured from but one or two cities, and then a conclusion has not been drawn, unless it seems to be typical of other cities within the acquaintance of the reporter.

The first conclusion which would seem to be evident is that a standard lot dimension is desirable. Three or four cities reporting suggested that desire. The dimensions perhaps could not be absolutely definitized, but there seems to be a tendency, as you will see from the discussion, toward a lot size of about 40 feet by 100 to 120.

With regard to the subject of alleys, slightly over half of the cities considered do have alleys, and some of those alleys have been deliberately planned. In other cases they have been forced upon the real estate developer because of the shape and size of his lots and blocks, the alley being introduced in order to make use of what otherwise would be rear property. Alleys possess both good and bad features. A majority of those reporting said that alleys as they now are found in the majority of cities were a menace. I might inject, however, that it is believed by most city planners that they might be made a good thing.

The subject of restrictions is one which is of great importance in connection with the determination of lot sizes. These restrictions are of various kinds. They may consist of a simple setback of the structure from the street so as to procure a front yard. The size of courts in simple dwellings or tenements is important, as are the percentage of area of the lot, the number of buildings per lot, and incidentally per acre, when the larger size of lot is introduced. In the use of the building there comes in again the subject of zoning. The value of the building per lot is another important item. That restrictions are necessary was very specifically pointed out by the reports from Newark, Bridgeport, New York City, Louisville and so forth.

As an example of an alley condition attention may be called to the diagram representing an original block in

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Washington. The plat was originally about 500 feet square and it was laid out according to L'Enfant's idea. As originally designed there was an alley through the block, with a sort of an H alley into the two sides. In order to secure the use of the land, however, the different subdividers inserted alleys to the right of the main alley, the cross alley at the top of what may be called the H, another outlet with an alley to the right of the H and several irregular prongs on the points.

The conditions in this block finally became so acute that they merited congressional action (perhaps a unique case in that respect), and Congress passed bills authorizing the entire elimination of the central portion of this block and its conversion into a playground. The particular point to be brought out is that a block of this size, which was developed by the use of alleys, became finally so bad (at least in part due to the alley situation) that it was necessary to wipe out a major part of the block. It would have been better perhaps to have wiped out the whole block and made the playground cover the whole district rather than to make it include just the center portion, with a single small entrance. This last comment is a parenthesis by the way.

Another example of conditions in which the lot was found too deep, so that its depth was detrimental, is illustrated in the diagram, which shows a part only of a block in the Borough of Manhattan, New York City. This is of 1850 date approximately and shows that at that time rear dwellings had been constructed throughout a large portion of that block. Since those lots are only 100 feet in depth (the blocks being practically standardized in New York City at 200 feet in width by varying lengths up to 800 or 900 feet) there is an evident tendency to the construction of rear buildings, unless restrictions interfere, in lots of even this depth. In some other cities reports show that as many as two or three dwellings are found in a lot 150 feet deep and that lots even 70 feet deep, in many

STUDY OF A TYPICAL FOR THE COMMITTEE ON LAND SURVEYING OF THE NATIONAL CITY PLANNING



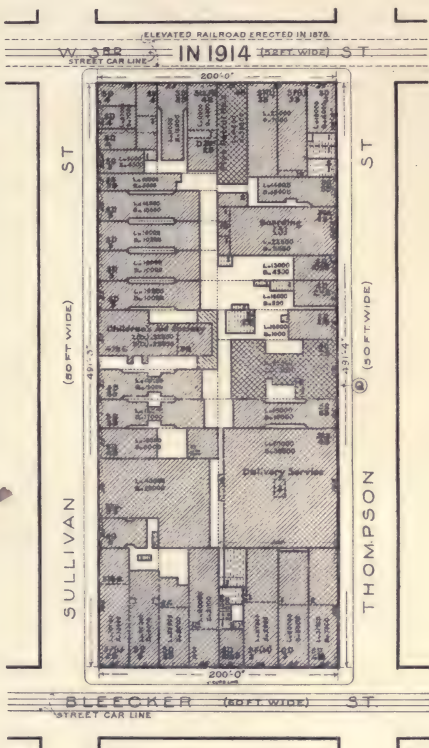
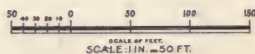
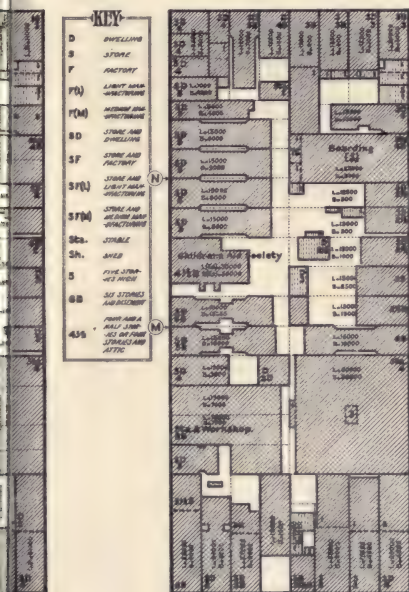
Conditions little changed from preceeding except that a larger proportion of some of the lots is built over and a few railroad tenements have crept in with no windows in the depth of the lot.

The most congested wooden highway to five story brick tenement with most of the rooms opening onto only 2½ to 3 feet wide.

AL BLOCK

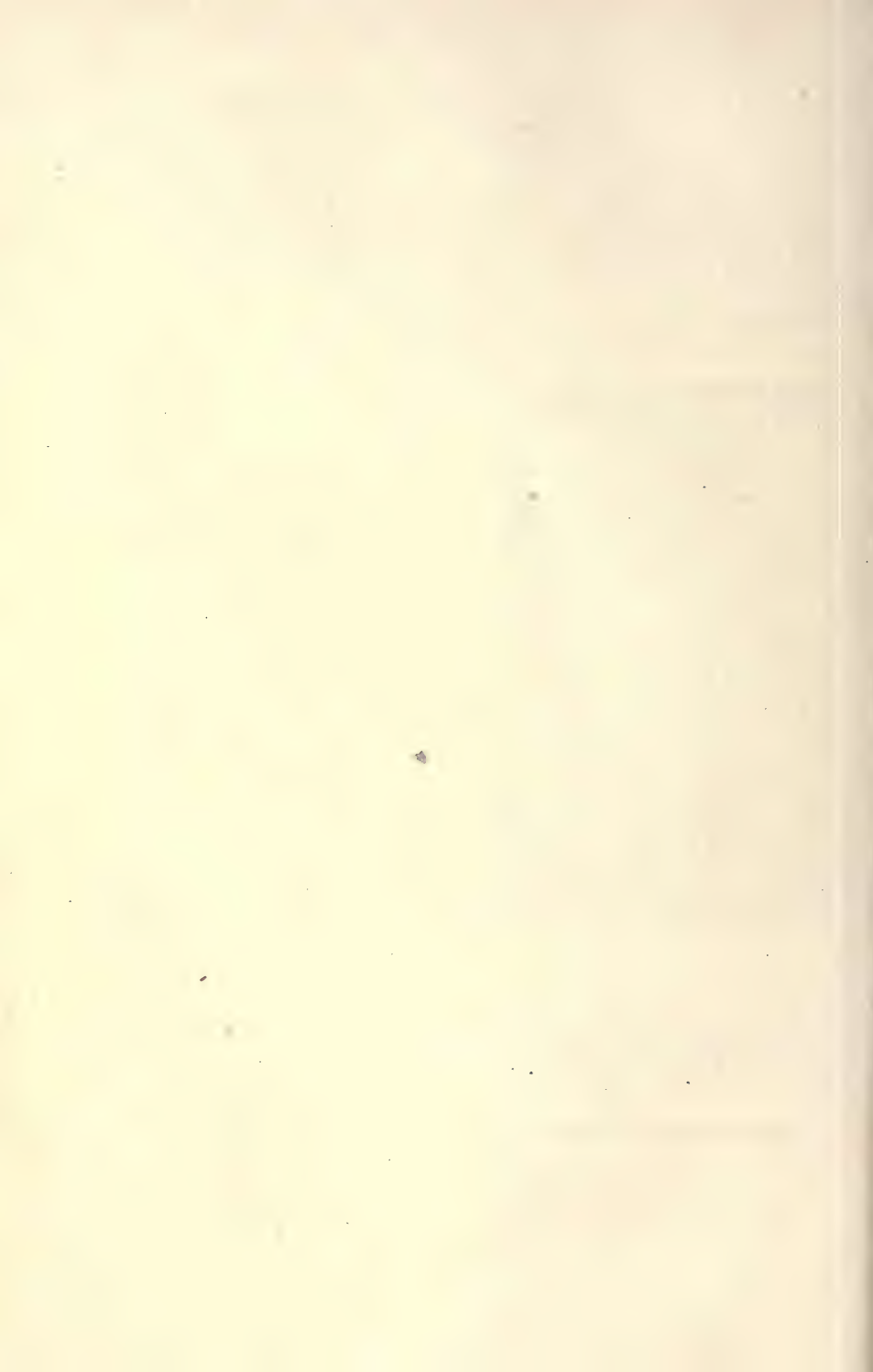
DIVISION
CONFERENCE

IN 1905



Owing to a new law for courts, they are larger in the center than in the former types. Compare "M" with "N".
The larger factories need the full depth of the lot.
Note the different types of tenements and the forms into which the deep, narrow lots have forced them.

The tenement in the middle of Thompson Street at "Q" shows approximately the type required by the tenement law of 1902 with its larger courts and yard covering at least 30 per cent of the lot.



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cases, had rear dwellings and, in some cases, rear factories erected upon them.

Unless, therefore, some restrictions are provided the bad features of rear buildings must be handled by some special means. Such is probably the first cause of the tenement house restriction, under which the percentage of the lot area which can be covered is definitely stated. The size and shape of the courts are also involved, and the various other items which are well known in tenement house laws are invoked to prevent just such a condition as that mentioned.

Bad conditions followed by legal restrictions seem then to be one of the reasons why lots have tended to become smaller, down to the condition which would naturally and normally prevent such troublesome difficulties as are found.

A study of the lot size itself shows that three districts in the United States seem to be pretty well differentiated. In the New England States (as typified by Boston and Brookline) the lots were originally from 50 to 80 feet in width by 250 and 300 feet in depth. In Brookline they varied from 40 to 60 by 90 to 100, sometimes running up to 200 feet in depth. The tendency at the present time, as indicated by the reports from Boston, shows that those large lots were constantly subdivided until they finally became only 15 to 25 feet in width, in some instances, and only 50 to 65 feet in depth. There is indicated, however, on the diagram accompanying the report from Boston, a rather interesting feature in that some of these small lots are now being again recombined through the conversion of the property into larger plots (100 feet square and even more) for hotels and department stores.

The conditions in New England are irregular, not well standardized, although the diagram which has been drawn as the result of the investigation made by Mr. Olmsted of some 700 different plottings, involving several thousand lots, seems to show that there is a pretty strong tendency

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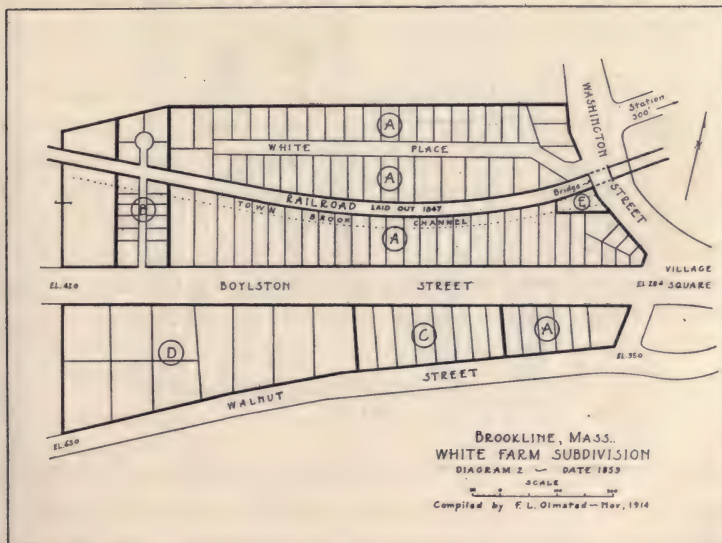
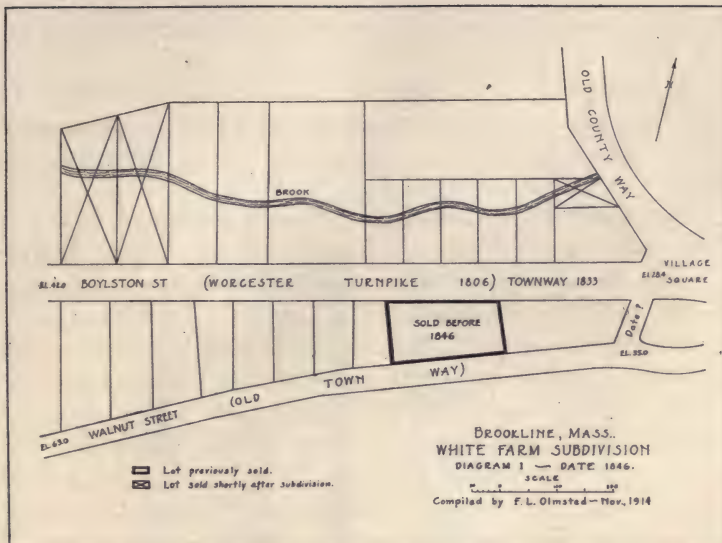
to a lot width of about 40 feet and a lot depth of from 90 to 100 feet approximately.

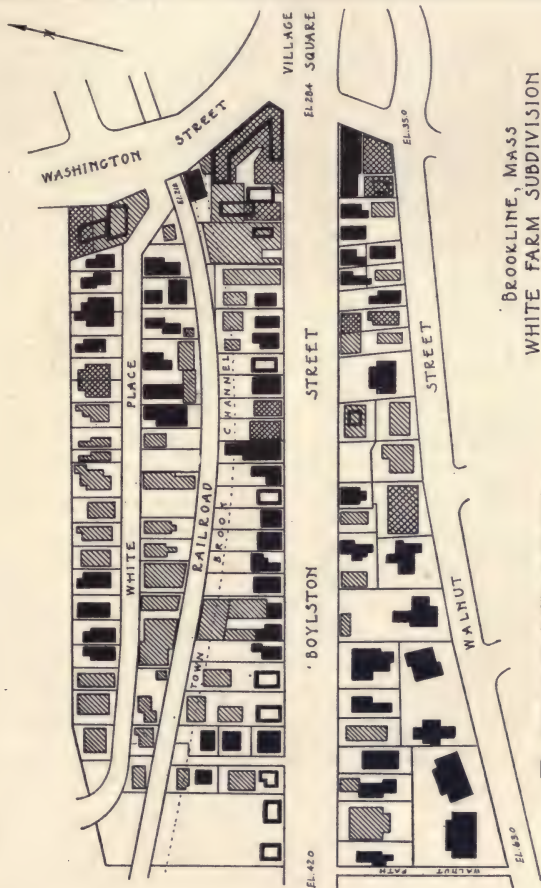
Philadelphia is in a class by itself, as you all know. It has developed a small lot particularly for workingmen's dwellings, the lot being approximately 15 by 45 or 50 feet.

Baltimore follows to some extent this same lot size, but otherwise those two cities are unique in the United States.

New York and Newark have for a hundred years and more had a standard lot and a standard block dimension. Last evening you heard with regard to New York the reason for the establishment of the size of 200 feet between streets. The plottings in Manhattan, which occurred just about 1800, began to have this standardized lot dimension, and ever since that time a 25 foot lot in Manhattan and the Bronx and a 20 foot lot in Brooklyn, Queens and Staten Island has been the standard width, some exceptions of course occurring. One hundred feet has been the standard depth almost universally. A few buildings have been erected on lots $12\frac{1}{2}$ or 15 feet wide, but they are very rare.

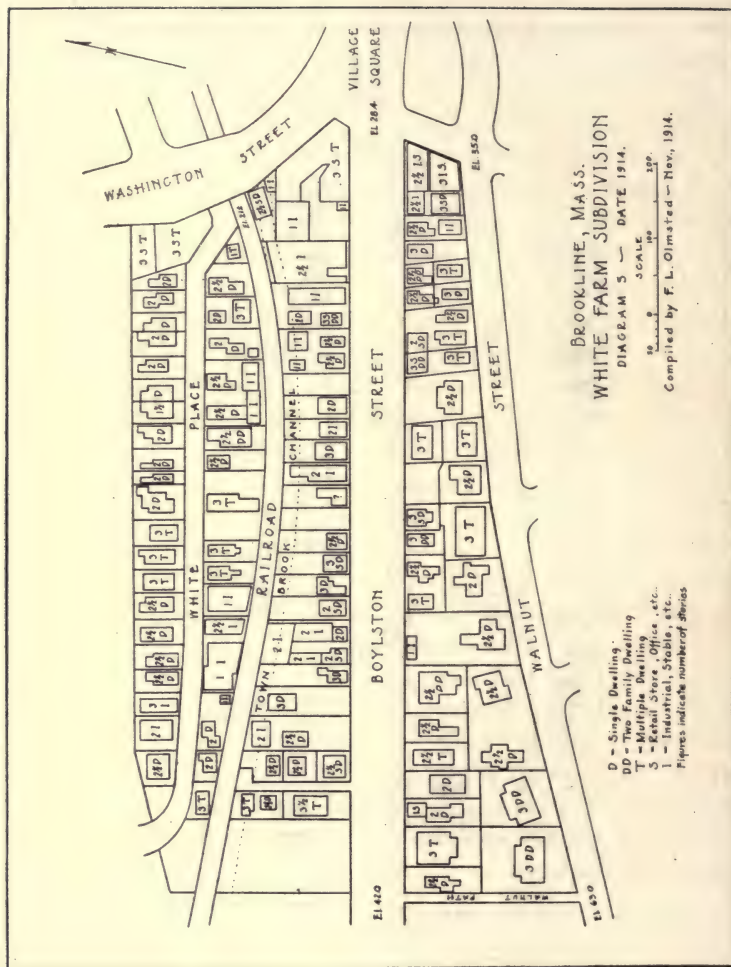
In the Western cities (those west of New York and Philadelphia) the size seems to be considerably larger. But the tendency seems again to be toward the same standard. Syracuse may be cited, in which the original lots were laid out 200 by 200. Then they were reduced to 100 by 200, with an occasional lot 50 by 200. Reductions again were made, so that the size has come down to about 40 by 120, which figure is an average of 5 late real estate plottings. That size is actually found in 5 out of 11 and is the average of all the 11. In the cities further west the size seems to run from 50 to 100 by 150, and up to 200 in some cases. Mr. Veiller, in a very interesting report to the Conference at Philadelphia, cites 46 cities in which 25 have depths more than 125 feet and 9 have depths more than 150 feet. In Berkeley, Cal., for example, the original lot size was 50 by 160. But the owners recombined to suit themselves.





BROOKLINE, MASS
 WHITE FARM SUBDIVISION
 DIAGRAM 4 — DATE 1874-1913
 10' = 1" SCALE
 Compiled by F. L. Olmsted — Nov., 1914

- Buildings existing in 1874 and still standing.
- Buildings removed since 1874.
- Wooden buildings erected since 1874.
- Brick buildings erected since 1874.



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They sometimes erected rear buildings, they sometimes divided up the property so that three persons would occupy the width of two 50 foot lots. The present lot size in Berkeley is about 40 feet in width by various depths.

There seems then to be a tendency toward a standard lot dimension, as given.

The difficulties with lots which are deeper than the 100 foot standard, or even the 100 foot standard when not restricted, are very well discussed by the Louisville report. The lot area seems to be the prime factor. If a lot must be deep, it is usually narrow, and conversely. Deep lots, narrow lots, tend toward the use of narrow buildings. Narrow buildings are bad from any point of view, whether residential or for store use. Lots even 70 feet deep tend toward rear buildings. Back dwellings, even alley homes, are well known to be usually congested and of low quality. The committees of some cities (Cleveland and Louisville and one or two others) deliberately state that, wherever this congestion takes place, often real estate values are depleted. This is an economic condition which would tend against the construction of alleys, of back dwellings, of narrow dwellings, of narrow lots or deep lots.

It would seem, therefore, that this Conference could very well continue the study, gathering statistics from other cities. This is all the more true because, as far as further physical, sociological and economic facts are concerned, they have not been received in a measure sufficiently broad to be able to draw any conclusions.

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN NOLEN:

Mr. Goodrich has given but a brief presentation, partly with the idea that the additional things that might be said would be better selected by questions directed to him. This subject is not open now for discussion, but merely to

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give Mr. Goodrich an opportunity to clear any point that is not clear or to supplement by additional information on any point desired. If there are any questions, Mr. Goodrich will be very glad to answer them.

MR. H. J. KELLAWAY, *Boston*:

I would like to ask Mr. Goodrich if in his investigation he has found any note in regard to living conditions of people of average means with respect to the size of the lot. In Detroit I notice there are many individual lots. I would like to ask if there is anything contained in the investigation with respect to the size of the lot, that is, with respect to the number of people that are living on it.

MR. GOODRICH:

No data was received from which information could be deduced along that line. There was one very interesting point, however, which is somewhat similar to that, which might be explained, derived from Newark.

Three subdivisions, each about equally distant from the center of the city — the “four corners” so called, the intersection of Broad and Market streets — were examined and information secured from atlases going back to 1870. Of those three subdivisions one was restricted with regard to the setback and kind of house, and certain other of the usual real estate restrictions were imposed. The other two were not restricted. The latter two soon tended toward back lot dwellings and factories and depreciated in value as far as the general usefulness was concerned. It became the poorest kind of tenement district, occupied by foreigners. The relative value of that property with regard to the city at large had much decreased. The actual valuations were about stable, but the property in the vicinity increased in value, so that relatively those two particular districts decreased in value. On the other hand the restricted plot increased more than twice as much as the average for the whole community, showing the value of restrictions in

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that particular case upon the valuation. That, incidentally, has to do with the number of people which are permitted to live upon the lot and per acre. That is not an exact answer to your question, but comes as near to it as can be done from the data available.

MR. ANDREW WRIGHT CRAWFORD, *Philadelphia*:

Do you use the term "restrictions" in the sense only of restrictions imposed by the developer, or do you use it as well in the sense of restrictions imposed by a city through local authorities?

MR. GOODRICH:

I use it to include all of those several points, the law and the real estate restrictions both combined.

MR. KELLAWAY:

Is there any data with regard to the loss in value on city property wherein the size of lots and the character of use to which the property is put is involved? For instance, you have noticed certain districts and lots that are occupied by a high class of dwellings. As the city grows the people who occupied it first move further out; the same sized lot remains, but it is occupied by a different class of people. The real estate value goes down, and by and by it becomes what is known as the redlight district in many instances. The next move is business. Does the size of the lot bear in any respect on that development?

MR. GOODRICH:

Yes. Information from Philadelphia shows very conclusively that certain districts in that city were affected by such conditions as you describe. The original property would develop in large plots 100 feet square. As the denser population encroached upon those districts the properties depreciated in value, literally. The houses were finally

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converted into tenements, and rear tenements and additional tenements on the same lots were constructed. And because of this original excessive size the resubdivision was not of a good class, so that the conditions were made worse rather than better.

In another plot which I recall described in Philadelphia was found one of the smallest lot sizes which was encountered anywhere, something like 14 by 40, as I recall. The original development was an old one. Even though the same size or a very slightly larger one has been used a great many times since, that original small size seemed to limit the development to a poor class of tenants, and that property has been constantly of poor quality.

The people from Philadelphia also gave facts tending to show that those smaller houses when new were very much liked by the people, but as they grew old, when they became about 20 years old, they had depreciated enough so that the people moved out to better houses and newer houses of exactly the same size and type; but because of their movement away from that district it depreciated in value. Three or four subdivisions are cited showing this tendency to depreciate, possibly traceable, they think, to the small original size of the lot.

MR. ALLEN B. POND, *Chicago*:

Mr. Chairman, I wish to ask Mr. Goodrich if he thinks the depreciation of the lots spoken of is due to the size of the lot or whether that is not universal in all types.

MR. GOODRICH:

According to my own personal opinion that is so; but I can cite the condition in Newark in which two properties were restricted and one was unrestricted; one increased in value and the other did not.

MR. CRAWFORD:

There is a reduction in the rental value during the period while the land value of itself is increasing. Is that a New

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York phenomena and therefore unique? Is New York so awfully, viciously unique or has it been carried out in other cities as well?

MR. GOODRICH:

The only data which will throw any light upon that at all was received from Montreal, and the indications are in that city that the figures show a marked increase of valuation at one period; but taking everything into account as best I could, I believe that it was demonstrated by certain lots and blocks that there was a depreciating rental value combined simultaneously with an increasing land value.

MR. W. TEMPLETON JOHNSTON, *San Diego*:

I would like to ask Mr. Goodrich how severe the restrictions were in the case that he cites in Newark.

MR. GOODRICH:

I am not in a position to answer that question. The indications are simply that of setback, of the size of the building and of the original value of the building only.

MR. THOMAS ADAMS, *Ottawa*:

With reference to the case that has been cited from Montreal, which showed a very striking increase in land values, is that the only case which gives information on that point?

MR. GOODRICH:

That is the only one which was at all sizable which was clear in its indication. The Newark values, for instance, indicate a rise on this one restricted property and no rise on the other property. Few of the other cities gave values which were at all susceptible of analysis.

MR. T. S. MORRIS, *Hamilton, Ont.*:

Did I understand you to say that most of the cities, or at least a majority of the cities, were in favor of alleys in their subdivisions?

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MR. GOODRICH:

Most of the cities have alleys, either deliberately or as a real estate subterfuge; but the majority of the reports said the alleys were bad things as now found because of their narrow width and the tendency to erect rear buildings upon them, these buildings being of poor quality, and because as, in the example of Louisville particularly, they literally depreciated the value of the real estate.

MR. OLMSTED:

Isn't it true to some extent that cities which have alleys say they are objectionable, and the cities which have not alleys think they may be rather good; and in regard to the objection which is constantly made to alleys, that they lead to the erection of rear buildings, isn't that perhaps laying up against the alley something for which the alley is not strictly responsible? For instance, if you have deep lots, the rear buildings come up (unless they are prohibited by law), whether you have an alley or not.

CHAIRMAN NOLEN:

I think before we have any additional questions I ought to say that we should postpone the questioning for a moment, in order that we may have the reports of the local committees, and then we will have the entire subject open before us.

THE NEWARK REPORT

HARLAND BARTHOLOMEW

Secretary, City Planning Commission

With regard to one of these subdivisions that Mr. Goodrich spoke of in Newark, I would like to say that the one in the Italian section is the only instance of a bad alley condition which we have in Newark. After the report had been made the superintendent of buildings called my attention to the manner in which this occurred.

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The lot was approximately as originally laid out, about 300 or 350 feet wide. When the subdivision began to come, somebody plotted an alley through the middle of that block. We have in Newark a restriction which says that no building over one story in height shall be erected upon any alley, so that the ambitious developer there wishing to put more than one story buildings in the back of his 125 or 150 foot lots went down to the proper authority in the city and quietly changed the name of that alley from Aqueduct Alley to Aqueduct Street. He then proceeded to build some of the worst tenements anywhere from three to five stories high which we have in Newark.

Legislative enactments in Pennsylvania and New Jersey have given to plan commissions authority to report on land subdivisions in new areas and in old areas which are to be resubdivided. That we have never before had an agency with authority to supervise and regulate this fundamental factor in the city structure is surprising. We must attribute many of our unfortunate housing conditions and all of our improper street arrangements to the practices of avaricious land developers in sacrificing all other considerations to that of obtaining the maximum number of building lots in a given tract.

Although the lot units in common use cannot arbitrarily be condemned as undesirable, or in many instances as even unwise, there has been lack of forethought by land developers and by municipal officials in accepting almost universally the unit which is the product of mere chance. That the location and topography of different districts clearly demand different units is obvious. While the scientific determination of what are the best lot dimensions to adopt under certain typical conditions can never do away with many evils already existing, it is still possible to purify the source of contamination and materially to lessen the labor and cost of the usual cures — building code restrictions, tenement house laws, etc.

The problem of land subdivision is a fundamental part

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of city planning work. Plan commissions in states other than Pennsylvania and New Jersey will, no doubt, soon include this regulative power within the field of their activities.

Agencies other than plan commissions have, it is true, exercised here and there certain perfunctory powers with respect to land subdivision, but previous to the advent of city and town planning there seems to have been even less regulation of land subdivisions than of street arrangement. The professional developer has occasionally changed his street plan, but rarely if ever has he devised or changed his subdivisions to suit anything other than his own particular fancy.

Since the opinions offered are the result of study of land subdivision in Newark, N. J., the conclusions which follow are not necessarily applicable to other cities, as, for instance, Philadelphia, where the familiar "Philadelphia style" of house is so prevalent. However, conditions in Newark are not exceptional.

The 25 by 100 foot lot is the accepted standard, although no developer can give a reason for its use other than general custom. Multiples of this subdivision appear more frequently in the better residential sections, where the home builder often buys two, three or four lots. Private restrictions in certain areas require the purchase of two or more 25 by 100 foot units for single houses. In neighborhoods with such restrictions few evils are found. It is only after business structures and multiple dwellings have encroached on single houses that difficulties arise. The majority of objectionable conditions are not foreseen and provided against. They appear after a city's rapid expansion has compelled a rearrangement of housing conditions.

The problem therefore resolves itself into a question of lot dimensions, with every possible change of conditions in view, not only in better class residential districts, but also in districts affording the best possible housing conditions for the least rent.

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Subdivisions for commercial and industrial structures only are not here considered.

Land subdivision in a growing city is essentially a question of housing. The first step is to fix a definite minimum, all larger subdivisions being multiples of this minimum.

The primary object of city land subdivision is to admit of more intensive use. Some special unit is commonly favored, not because it is especially adapted to the purpose for which it is to be used, but because of custom. The dimensions of lots should be determined only after the best dimensions for the particular type of structure to be erected on them has been agreed upon. Experience gives us the following arguments against the 25 by 100 foot unit.

(1) It is impossible to build upon a 25 by 100 foot plot a dwelling (especially of the multiple type) having two rooms abreast, or even one room and a hall, with sufficient clearance between buildings to admit of adequate light, air and sunshine.

(2) It is impossible to build upon a 25 by 100 foot plot a structure which is more than two rooms deep without creating dark rooms or rooms which never receive direct sunlight and are not well lighted for more than a few hours in the day.

(3) A building for dwelling purposes demands a certain fixed minimum of space, usually a given number of rooms. On a 25 by 100 foot plot this minimum cannot be economically developed in the form of rooms of sufficient number for an average family, arranged as to light, air and intercommunication, to furnish fairly healthful conditions for a family of average size. The smallest unit upon which the results referred to can be obtained is 30 by 100 feet, and a greater width is very desirable. For certain reasons I venture to suggest a width of $33\frac{1}{3}$ feet.

The suggestion of a wider unit at once raises the question whether such a subdivision will yield a proportionately greater financial return than that of 25 feet. I believe it can be shown that a structure adapted to the larger plot

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would, if carefully designed, more readily lend itself to its intended purposes, yield increased rentals and call for no greater investment in proportion to returns.

A builder of my acquaintance proposed to erect four tenement houses upon a 100 by 100 foot plot. He was persuaded to build three instead of four and is now convinced that he is securing a greater return upon a smaller investment, by reason of better accommodations, better tenants and better rents than if he had carried out his original plan.

It is quite possible that a change in the proportion of lot dimensions still more radical than that suggested would prove still more advantageous, and in special cases, like that of the "Philadelphia style" house, this is undoubtedly true. Yet to depart very far from what has for so long been an accepted custom would tend to arouse hostility and might be less productive of results. It is true that most of the harm has been done, and can be undone only after the lapse of many years; but the value of making a proper, though tardy, start is not to be underestimated.

Ninety per cent of bad housing conditions in Newark are found in structures built on the 25 by 100 foot unit. To increase this unit to 33 by 100 feet will not, of course, prevent all objectional development, for any change in lot dimensions will bring forth new evils, which must be dealt with as they arise.

One cause of much evil is the back lot structure. The large number of such structures has led to the advocacy of a lot of greater width and less depth. To decrease the lot depth means to make the block more shallow, to require more streets and a greater area for the same number of inhabitants.

By decreasing the area of a $33\frac{1}{3}$ by 100 foot lot which may be covered by buildings and prohibiting back lot structures (barns, stables, dwellings, etc.) better results could be reached than by working the lot of less depth.

Upon our conclusion as to proper land subdivision dimen-

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sions depends the answer to another important problem — block dimensions. Assuming the unit of 100 foot depth it seems wise to follow the present practice in residential districts and make blocks of about 200 by 600 feet or 800 feet. This block unit, however, is not recommended for business districts, since it does not make for efficiency in traffic movement. A block 200 by 400 feet seems advisable for business districts. By using multiples of the $33\frac{1}{3}$ by 100 feet unit a block dimension of 400 by 400 feet for business districts could well be adopted. Either of these two dimensions will suit well the demands of a business district — accessibility and rapid distribution of vehicular and pedestrian travel.

Studies prepared in Newark on land subdivision showed that in two sections, equally distant from the center of the city, land values actually stood still for 25 years, while the normal increase for the entire city during that period was somewhat over 200 per cent. In a third section, however, the same distance from the center of the city, land value increase was more than the average increase for the city, a growth easily explained by the fact that more or less stringent restrictions were enforced by private owners. The non-increase in value in the two sections first mentioned was apparently due to permitting a promiscuous development, tenements, factories, stores, stables, etc., being depressingly intermingled. This developmental chaos is found in almost all cities and is due generally to the lack of proper restrictions. While building codes, tenement house laws and the like prohibit much that is undesirable, only through restrictions established by private individuals has it been possible to obtain the best conditions. Herein seems to lie an unanswerable argument for restrictions enforced by the municipality or by other competent public authority.

To establish standard dimensions for land subdivision is perhaps an unwarranted procedure in general. The necessity of restraining the activities of irresponsible land opera-

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tors makes it seem desirable, however, to fix a definite minimum dimension. With this exception, and it is a most important exception, there seems little reason for greatly limiting the freedom now granted to the landscape architect and the land developer.

In the opening of large tracts adjoining a city restrictions should, of course, be placed on the direction and character of streets. They should meet the demands of topography and of anticipated traffic. But this topic is not within the field of this brief paper.

I have tried to present a few of the many facts which must be considered in attempting to determine proper dimensions for land subdivision. The conclusions have been drawn from observations of conditions which are primarily bad, and have been presented rather with the hope that they may arouse further discussion than with the thought that they establish an ideal.

THE PHILADELPHIA REPORT

JOSEPH JOHNSON

Bureau of Survey, Philadelphia

OUR committee has not followed the same lines as committees in other cities, for the conditions under which land is improved and conversion occurs in Philadelphia appear to be quite different from conditions prevailing elsewhere. We have rather endeavored to show what are the tendencies in Philadelphia. Our studies are selected from practically every part of the city except the central section. Land subdivision practices common in New England towns prevail in Philadelphia to only a limited extent, and it has seemed to us also that the New York study illustrates what is occurring in old sections rather than what is occurring or likely to occur in the new sections. In other words, these plans do not illustrate what is happening or may hap-

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pen in sections now being developed, and it is these sections that it is most necessary to regulate if proper provision is to be made for directing land subdivision and city development along the lines which the national conference advocates. Methods of development will change very materially if zoning should become a general practice, and this possibility should certainly be considered in connection with any change in the practices of land subdivision.

The conversion of use of property is going on in every growing community, but it is doubtful whether the original subdivision of the land has very much influence upon this conversion. If a change of activity occurs in any section for any reason, the improvements will naturally be altered to meet the new conditions, and this will be brought about either by erecting a different type of structure upon the lot as laid out or by consolidating a number of lots and merging them into one property. This of course is constantly occurring, and many instances of it could be shown in Philadelphia, but scarcely an instance could be shown which would be typical of what is occurring in all sections. We might, for instance, show such radical conversions as is represented by the Wanamaker building and the Curtis Publishing Company building, each of which now occupies an entire block which was originally subdivided into much smaller lots and held by separate owners, or we might show a block in the center of the city where certain properties have the same boundaries as they were given when laid out by William Penn, but where adjacent properties were resubdivided and buildings erected upon them before the city possessed the power to regulate indiscriminate building, as it has been able to do during the last sixty years. Illustrations of this kind would scarcely be typical, and while they would undoubtedly be of much general interest, they would not illustrate what is occurring today, except to a limited extent, in either the case of the Wanamaker and Curtis buildings or the other case stated.

Our studies indicate the present tendencies of land devel-

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opment in Philadelphia, and these tendencies are in some respects unfortunate. It has appeared to us that one of the chief objects of this investigation should be to recommend, and if possible obtain, such control as will provide for methods of subdivision which will not only be more economical in the subdivision of land for the original purposes for which it is to be used, but will encourage better housing, better neighborhood surroundings, larger opportunities for practical and progressive city planning, and greater permanence and stability of urban improvements.

It has been an almost invariable custom in Philadelphia, under our system of establishing the street system far in advance of improvements, for the first improvement to be of a character that lasts for a great many years; these improvements are in the form of the single family row house, the detached or semi-detached dwelling, and the single residence of a higher type which is erected in some suburban sections; the class first mentioned being greatly in the majority.

The development of the one family house in Philadelphia is especially interesting. In the early growth of the city houses four stories high with deep lots were built in solid blocks; as the city was extended this type of dwelling gave way to the three story one upon a smaller lot, and still later the two story house came largely into vogue. With the change in the type of house there was a corresponding change in the size of the lot, the change being almost invariably toward shallower depths for the row houses. Today the tendency in some sections of the city is to erect the row house upon the shallowest lot permitted, the law requiring that each dwelling shall have an open space of at least 144 square feet attached to it and a frontage of not less than 14 feet. Until 25 years ago it was the almost invariable custom to erect the fronts of row houses immediately upon the street line, but in more recent years it has become the practice to erect porches in front of them. The two story house is erected not only for the use of a

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single family, but considerable numbers are being erected in some sections of the city, and especially in West Philadelphia, as two family houses, a family occupying each story.

There is of course considerable change in some sections of the city in the character of the occupancy of the houses of all types. Some of the early four story houses which were large and substantial are now used as boarding houses, apartment houses or lodging houses, and some have been converted to business uses without any change of lot lines, alterations of the fronts and interiors being made to accommodate them to the new use. This occurs in practically every section of the city where local business is encouraged, and it is a matter of very frequent occurrence for even the two story dwelling to be converted into a store by removing the front in the lower story and substituting a store window, and there are instances where an entire block of dwellings has been converted in this manner. It also occurs in some instances that extensions are placed in the rear of such dwellings and also a third story added.

One of our studies shows a section in the suburb of Germantown where the properties were originally quite large and were occupied by large mansions. The growth of urban improvements in the vicinity has driven out families who originally occupied this section and the large properties are now being subdivided and converted to the uses of the smaller house, as indicated in the study. This form of conversion of use is increasing in some sections of the city.

We have not gone at all into the sociological aspect of the problem as it appears to us doubtful whether methods of land subdivision, the shape or size of lot, or even the character of the first permanent structure erected upon a lot directly influenced the sociological results to any large extent. A section of this city once occupied by its first families is now largely occupied by the foreign element and once handsome residences have become almost, if not quite, slums; on the other hand some of our smallest dwellings

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are perfectly sanitary and wholesome places in which to live. Land subdivision in itself, without proper control of the occupancy and use of the land and without the enforcement of proper health and sanitary regulations, would scarcely have any large influence in raising the physical, intellectual or moral standards of a community; the raising of these standards is more largely dependent upon education and training and the employment of approved hygienic sanitary measures.

THE LOUISVILLE REPORT

J. C. MURPHY

Member American Institute of Architects

THE Louisville subcommittee was not able to make a very complete report because we found the subject a little bit larger than we anticipated. And as the report we made is rather brief, I will read it.

The block taken for study is in the city of Louisville, Ky., bounded on the north by Chestnut Street, south by Magazine Street, east by Eleventh Street and west by Twelfth Street. This portion of the city is practically level and is laid out on the gridiron plan. The block is 420 by 420 feet on property lines, with streets 60 feet wide on all sides. It is in the older part of the city, within three quarters of a mile of the heart of the shopping, hotel and amusement center. Chestnut Street is a thoroughfare that is occupied by double track electric cars. Twelfth Street is a minor crosstown thoroughfare occupied by a double track car line of lesser importance. Eleventh Street carries much freight traffic to the freight depots and factories and is preferred for trucking because of the absence of car tracks. The lots fronting on Chestnut and Magazine streets were originally 200 feet deep, abutting on what is locally termed a blind alley, i.e., opened at one end. This alley is 20 feet wide.

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Chestnut Street was formerly a street generally occupied by the homes of a very good class of citizens, although the block under consideration was exceptional in that it contained small, inexpensive houses. Magazine Street is not a thoroughfare and has never been of importance.

A short distance to the northeast was formerly the center of a colored settlement. Shortly after 1884 this settlement, which was a growing one, spread out and later overlapped the block, driving out the whites, who abandoned their homes to the colored element.

The first encroachment of the colored people caused the building of cheap frame houses for that class fronting on the alley. These are largely individual or two family frame houses. The original houses fronting the surrounding streets were converted or rather used as tenements of one or more rooms each, little alteration being made in them.

The section is now given over entirely to colored tenements and the neighborhood has reached a low order when measured by property values.

The assessed value of the land in this block in 1884 was at \$29,921 and the buildings on it were assessed at \$20,600. In 1914 the land was assessed at \$31,089 and the buildings thereon at \$30,850.

Owing to the baneful effect the settlement by colored residents has on the market value of real estate in any section in which they begin to come, the city of Louisville, at the urgent request of many property owners in sections threatened by such settlement, passed a segregation ordinance. This ordinance prohibits the occupation by colored people of dwellings in any city block in which the whites are in a majority, at the same time prohibiting the moving of whites into any block in which colored people are in the majority. The purpose of the ordinance being to segregate the colored people, it has been attached in the courts on the ground that it discriminates against their rights as citizens. The ordinance has been upheld in the lower courts and is

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now pending in the Kentucky court of appeals, our court of last resort.

The building of a cheaper class of dwellings in the alleys, such as has resulted in the block under consideration, is quite common in Louisville, resulting in an unsanitary condition of affairs that is not only prejudicial to the physical but to the moral health of localities in which it exists.

This committee early came to the conclusion that our present city lots are too deep. Two hundred feet is the depth of the original city lots, but they have been made of lesser depth in land subdivision by private owners in later years, even to the extreme of 100 feet in a few cases. We might say, however, that the minimum depth has been due to physical conditions that were unsurmountable; generally the strips of land being subdivided were too narrow to provide deeper lots. We have seen in the block we are studying that although the original lots were 200 feet deep their owners cut them in two, making the lots 100 feet deep. This is well below the average depth, but we see that even this extreme has proven to be the more desirable, as shown by the block in question.

As a result of the great depth of lot purchasers have brought as few front feet as possible and there has developed different classes of narrow, rather long houses. In nearly all cases in Louisville we build single detached dwellings; consequently when building a detached dwelling on a narrow lot you have an attenuated affair that must depend for light and air on windows opening into narrow, more or less dark and damp passages. Occasionally in the older portions of the city you will find what is locally called "a double" house — a house open to the front and back, but with a blank dividing wall through the center; such houses therefore can get light from one side only. As this type of house was generally built three or more rooms deep and on narrow lots we find the troubles of the single house in more intensified form. The inner rooms are dark and there is a lack of air and freshness. Seldom do we find a block of

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more than two houses attached. In recent years we have the apartment house in all styles and grades, from the converted two or three story single dwelling of former times to the large modern structure of 30 to 40 apartments.

Since the advent of the apartment and tenement house and the general awakening as to housing conditions that obtains throughout the land the question has been carefully studied in Louisville and Kentucky. We now have a state law which defines a tenement to be any house in which more than two families reside. This law prescribes very rigid requirements that must be met in houses of this class, and as the law has been enforced and the architects and the public are becoming accustomed to its requirements there is evolving a different and much better type of small apartment than that which preceded the enactment of the tenement house law, when narrow lots and narrow passages obtained rather than the broad open courts that result from the newer type.

The law also prohibits the building of a tenement house in an alley unless there is left at least 25 feet from the front line of the tenement to the property line on the opposite side of the alley. A single house or two family tenement may be built on an alley of any width provided 6 feet is left between the front of the building and the property line. As some of our alleys are only 10 feet wide it can happen that a two family tenement might be built within 16 feet of a building on the opposite side of the alley.

We might add that it is almost the invariable custom in Louisville to provide alleys in all of its city blocks varying in width from 10 to 20 feet. Very few blocks in the older parts of the city are without alleys and it is very difficult to wean the people away from them. Of later years, however, the sentiment in this respect is changing, some of the later subdivisions being without alleys. The improvement has been noted and many of our city builders are predicting the general adoption of the newer custom.

In the business portion of the city we find the same gen-

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eral objection to the narrow lot that is found in the residence section, a very deep narrow shop with congestion at entrance and darkness at the distant rear. In order to get any considerable frontage, which in most branches is extremely valuable by reason of the opportunity it gives to display goods to the public, the shopkeeper is forced to the expedient of taking two or more lots, which leaves unused space in the rear. This obviously is a most uneconomical method.

While we are convinced that our lots are too deep for residence and ordinary business purposes, we are still groping for light and hope as a result of the experience collected by the general committee to be able to adopt something that will prove to be more satisfactory.

The shortening of lots will no doubt have a tendency to widen them and do it without unduly increasing the cost of the land. More streets for frontage, combined with fewer and narrower cross or connecting streets, would enable the landowner to do this without a burden on the purchaser and we would have districts that would more nearly retain their value. Under present conditions where a block has been built up we invariably find the same uninviting passages, that have a depressing effect on property values, as they impel the residents to abandon their undesirable houses and move out into the newer sections. This tendency is a great economic waste, it reduces the income of the property owner, reduces the city's revenue from taxation and we soon have, if not a slum, at least a most uninviting section that is always retrogressing.

THE POINT OF VIEW OF THE REAL ESTATE DEVELOPER

PAUL A. HARSCH

Vice-President E. H. Close Realty Co., Toledo

THE human mind is a very peculiar thing. I have listened with a great deal of interest to the things which have just been said, and among other things have heard the real estate profession classed as being avaricious.

I am proud of being a real estate man; I don't believe that there is a class of people in the world today who have a finer or higher responsibility placed upon them than have the real estate men. In our rapidly growing communities the real estate man holds a position of the utmost importance. It is true that there are in the ranks of the real estate profession men who are admittedly avaricious, but it is by no means true of the entire profession.

We have heard discussed the matter of 25 foot lots, the matter of 60 foot lots and the matter of 100 foot lots. I don't believe that we can say that the 25 foot unit is a proper unit, nor the 50 foot, nor the 100 foot unit. We must approach the question in a broader and a wider way.

I recall at this instant a most interesting statement which I heard made by a noted Englishman. He said: "We must cease to think in cities; we must cease to think in parishes; we must cease to think in counties and even in nationalities. We must think, ladies and gentlemen, in hemispheres." Until we can think in hemispheres and then also come right back to the practical everyday state of life and think in 25 foot lots, for instance, we will never be able to solve the problems which we hope to solve, which we propose to solve by just such meetings as we are attending today.

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Now I have prepared a paper, and I wish to follow it as closely as possible, because I believe that the points which I have embodied in the paper are things which we, as real estate people and as city planning experts, must consider together if we are going to work out the problems which are before us.

It may seem an anomaly to make the statement that between those who are contributing to the frightful devastation in the war-torn countries of Europe and those of us who are gathered here today there is a striking similarity. This is, however, the exact truth. We are both endeavoring to destroy the existing order of things and to substitute therefor a new condition amidst other and what we believe better surroundings. Here the similarity ends, however. Our methods are wholly peaceful and altruistic, theirs entirely destructive.

While I am far from admitting that war is or ever can be a good thing, as some of our ablest writers and analysts contend, still it may be conceded that, in the centuries that have passed with their varying degrees of civilization and shame or glory, the condition of vast masses of people living in congested areas has been materially modified for the better by the fortunes of war. Cities have been partially or totally destroyed and rebuilt along lines vitally different and frequently far more satisfactory from the standpoint of health, happiness and convenience.

The passing of the walled cities of medieval times presented an opportunity for the first time for those not of the very rich class to express themselves in detached homes, gardens and the like, but it was not until comparatively recent times that, even in the most enlightened centers, the art of city planning as we now understand it was widely practiced. While war and the fear of war prevailed there was little incentive for mankind to express itself along this line, though as far as the correction of municipal blunders of construction was concerned this was often done as a direct result of war. If, for example, any of our larger

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American cities were threatened by invasion as was Paris but a few months ago, and the edict went forth, as it did there, to raze all the buildings within a radius of, say, ten miles of the present city limits, and the future reconstruction were left to a competent commission of trained and skilled experts, the result would be an unmixed blessing for future generations, however heavy the price. So that war undoubtedly has its compensating features.

We, however, are idealists and not ruthless destroyers of an established civilization. Sometimes in moments of impatience we may desire the power of a Napoleon, but in the main we are content to wage a war of education instead of extermination, and accomplish in this more peaceful way greater, better and more lasting good for humanity than was even dreamed of in bygone days.

I have said that we are students of a truer idealism, and I take it that we are here today, you men and members representing the rapidly growing and vastly important profession of landscape architecture and we of the real estate profession, for the purpose of determining in what way or ways we can best coöperate to bring to this beloved land of ours a greater blessing in the shape of improved homes and cities, and we believe, both of us, that in this matter we are entirely patriotic, and we are going to strive so to combine the idealistic with the practical that at no time shall we be charged with being either selfish or chimerical.

The desire to combine the practical and the idealistic and thereby secure more readily and more quickly the results we both are striving to attain is, I understand, the reason that I have been asked to discuss this subject with you. It is that we may get each other's viewpoint and thereby develop that closer understanding and relationship which is essential to any real coöperation. We have relegated war to the background and adopted as our slogan "Education."

The world is rapidly growing in its appreciation of the beautiful, the perfect and the good, and by giving to our

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communities today improved subdivisions, charming in design, perfect in detail and practical in their completeness, we are but responding to a demand already latent in the consciousness of the public and ready to spring into birth when given an opportunity.

As always, when Truth and Art endeavor to express themselves in higher form, there is found the effort to belittle and prevent and, if possible, to destroy such expressions. It is our obligation to detect and circumvent these efforts.

The landscape architect or city planning expert is often a "dreamer of dreams," an idealist pure and simple. On the other hand the real estate operator is, in a great number of cases, entirely given over to the idea of making money out of his operations, of getting his commodity ready for the market at the least possible expense and with the smallest delay, and often without consideration for either his reputation or the interest and welfare of the purchasers of his property or the community as a whole. In these regards we are confronted with conditions, not theories, but conditions that can and will be rectified.

The city planning expert must learn to govern his ambitions, dreams and visions, must be able to make of them an inspiration and directing force for the molding of practical plans for harmonious real estate development. Coincidentally the greed and avarice of the get rich quick land speculator must be curbed and regulated — by law if necessary — and the ignorance of his well meaning but misguided brother operator corrected by an educational propaganda, to which I shall later advert.

Let us take first that horn of the dilemma presented by the incompetent and ill equipped city planning expert. What shall we do with him? Any real estate operation, no matter how small, quickly runs into money. Blunders are expensive, dangerous and at times discovered too late to correct. One such blunder may ruin the man whose confidence was misplaced, while the man really responsible

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for the failure simply seeks some pasture new and repeats the offense. Experiences like this make the real estate man wary and cause him to hesitate long and seriously before undertaking anything other than the stereotyped development.

It is an axiom that "Idealism that is not practical is not ideal." If we would elevate a community by providing for it better housing and living conditions generally, we must first convince it that these conditions are practicable, workable and demonstrable. As with an individual so with a community. It must be convinced by hard, clear, well thought out facts.

I believe that when you gentlemen as a profession can approach every problem of the real estate man from that standpoint and can convince him that you can save him money, ease his burdens, make his investment more sure and cause his name to be blessed instead of cursed in the community, you will have solved the great problem that confronts you. For when you have won over the real estate fraternity, captured it "horse, foot and dragoons" as it were, it will be but a short step to the day when the great civic reforms you all dream of will be presented to you for achievement. Let me repeat then that I think what we need most, if we are to coöperate, is a better equipped lot of men to carry out the work you profess to do.

A landscape architect, to be really great in his line, must be more than a civil engineer who can run grades and streets curved or straight, as the case may be. He must be more than a planting expert, familiar with the living things of the great outdoors. He must be more than a mechanical expert on matters of construction. He must be more than an artist with an eye to the beautiful in nature and ready to take advantage of everything she has done for him. He must be all of these, and besides he must be so practical and everyday and commonplace in his thought that he never forgets either the cost of what he proposes to do or, more important, that his work must finally stand

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the crucial test of "Will it sell the property at a profit?" For if it will not do this latter, then is his labor lost and his client's money wasted. But worse than this, the community is cursed with a mistake that it may take decades to outgrow. Produce such men, gentlemen, and the real estate world will follow wherever you lead and account whatever price you charge cheap.

Second and equal in importance is the matter of public education. The public should be more fully apprised of the nature of the work you are planning to do. I get almost all my knowledge of city planning activities from a great Boston daily which has an international circulation and which comments editorially at frequent intervals on this interesting subject.

Why have you not secured such coöperation all over the country? Why do you not tell the public the interesting fact that both in New York and Illinois two of our greatest colleges have established chairs of city planning? Why do you not tell the public of the wrongs you are striving to correct and that you are already working along the line of procuring corrective legislation? Point out the bad in realty development, the unfortunate in civic growth and how you propose to correct these. And, gentlemen, I assure you the public will be with you, and the real estate man will follow you because the public will demand that he do so.

One of two things is almost certain to be true of every land development. Either a present or a future need has been seen and is being supplied or anticipated, or else the sale of questionable land allotments is being stimulated fraudulently. It is, of course, patent to all that the operator following the first named course is the only conscientious one. The others, and their name is legion, are the ones who, regardless of all ethics, grasp upon some advantage of location or of transportation and by highly colored advertising frequently sell their additions in a day. What this fellow may desire in the way of expert advice you care little.

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You beware of him as you should. But his case will stand analysis.

Just now in Toledo there is an unusual demand for cheap lots in outlying districts. This demand has led to the platting of acreage property in some instances as far as ten miles from the city. This seems beyond reason when it is recalled that our population is still under 200,000. Lots in these additions sell, however, as many as 336 of the 30 foot variety being sold recently near Toledo in two days' selling. How to regulate this sort of thing and to what extent it should be regulated are questions I am not prepared to discuss at this time, but it is such questions as these which make me approach the proposition involved in the subject assigned to me with the greatest caution.

What are the best methods of land subdivision from the point of view of the real estate developer? Broadly they are those methods which will give him a maximum of property beauty and a minimum of upkeep expense, the largest possible number of feet of frontage and the least possible waste. This takes us directly to the city planning expert, and it seems to me that it is the duty and to the profit of all practical idealists to make those of us who do not know it realize it.

Primarily, of course, we real estate men want and must have property that will sell. Otherwise there would soon cease to be any real estate business. Therefore the first question we ask is the intensely practical and, you may say, somewhat sordid one, "Will it sell?"

A planning expert, no matter how skilled, cannot make a poor property sell. That is, if the land selected for improvement is badly located with reference to its surroundings, or if, because of topographical conditions, it is unsuitable for platting, or if it be inaccessible, or if the cost of development be prohibitive, we at once conclude we are not interested and seek for a tract where these conditions are absent. We naturally and inevitably seek to meet what we concede to be a coming need. If we are able to size up

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the situation rightly, we have a section of land ready to turn over to the expert for preparation to meet the need we have foreseen by the time the need grows into a demand.

Having reached this point we must again be guided by expediency, for the people of one locality are as different in their likes and dislikes from those in another, in the matter of homes, as they are in their commercial pursuits and intellectual tastes. Until they can be educated to a different viewpoint we must give them what they want. Therefore the question is not what the real estate man thinks and wants, but what the people of his community want. Thus city planning is merely meeting this demand in a scientific way and so relating each individual development to the whole that the final completed city will be a thing of beauty and a joy to every dweller therein.

It is not what you want, gentlemen, nor what we real estate men want. It is what the public wants — a great variety of developments, so that all tastes and all pocket-books may be satisfied and the requirements of widely differing group units of population met. This is our task and it is our further fine responsibility — to supply all the varieties of development demanded by the public in a way that will insure the public full value and the community an asset for the future. In simpler language, we can sell cheap lots or costly ones, but they must all be inherently good ones.

City planning is a quest for the beautiful. Wherefore, if we educate our public to an appreciation of the beautiful in all civic development, we are leading the way to the ultimate good. This brings me to the point at which I started — that the whole problem before us, both that part confronting you and that confronting us, is a matter of education and a matter of publicity. The latter should not be a difficult task, since the publicity policy of practically every newspaper in the land synchronizes perfectly with this idea. Every newspaper in the land will support the idea of public improvements when carried

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on along the line we are working, the line of civic uplift and public benefit.

In order to prove my case from the educational standpoint I am going to use my own home city as an illustration, even at the risk of seeming somewhat partial. In Toledo we are trying to foster civic love of the beautiful. We have some broad minded, clear visioned men who have given up much of their lives and large amounts of money to make this possible. Their vision has already been materialized in a most excellent system of public parks with a splendid connecting boulevard now under construction. Probably no city in the country patronizes its parks more liberally, population considered, than Toledo.

We are already committed to the creation, in the near future, of a civic center involving a half dozen city blocks, to be given over entirely to public and quasi-public buildings.

But the one thing, more than all else, that has done and is doing most to create a love of the beautiful in Toledo is our splendid art museum. This was built by popular subscription, much of the burden being borne, however, by one public spirited citizen. The institution has grown in popularity until the year's admissions to the building now amount to practically 90 per cent of the city's population, an enormously greater per cent than has been achieved by any other American center, not even excepting cultured Boston.

I think that the influence of this exquisite building, this wonderful temple of beauty, cannot be over-estimated. In itself it inspires a love of the beautiful that must surely grow into a factor not only for better civic development, but for better moral development, a great esthetic growth, if I may so put it. But it does even more. Through the medium of "City Beautiful" campaigns and numerous exhibitions calculated to draw people of all classes to the museum in large numbers and to arouse their interest in improving the quality of their work, the char-

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acter of their homes and the beauty of their surroundings, it brings the public generally into closer relations with the beautiful, puts them on familiar terms with such things. Because the public of Toledo looks upon this great marble palace and the treasures it shelters as its own, looks upon its beauties with a proprietary eye and is proud of this beauty in the city's life, they must naturally be inspired with a desire for such things in all their surroundings. We believe this spirit is one that must be inculcated and developed if the higher ideals of the city planning enthusiast are ever to be realized.

This is the spirit we must inspire. It will be the big factor in bringing success to the educational campaign you and we alike feel must be conducted if we are to put city planning, in its higher sense, into the everyday life of our nation.

I thank you very much for your attention, and while I may not have said as much along the line of desires of real estate men in the way of subdivision development, I cannot help but feel that the only way we can bring out that perfect coöperation is by working along the lines which I have outlined.

DISCUSSION

MR. LEE J. NINDE, *Fort Wayne*:

It is somewhat difficult to pick up the trend of thought that Mr. Harsch carried out so successfully this morning, but his interest in the work of the city planners reminds me of my own experience a year ago.

When I attended the Sixth Conference at Toronto, I was young in the real estate business as well as new to the subject of city planning. It may have been because of my inexperience that it was new and delightful to me and that I became quite enthusiastic over its possibilities. The wisdom of foresight in planning our cities seemed so reasonable to me and so much a matter of course that I thought

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that real estate dealers of longer experience than myself would undoubtedly have taken a deep interest and would have acquired a broad knowledge of the subject.

Two months after the Toronto Convention I attended the convention of the National Real Estate Association at Pittsburgh and immediately began to talk to my brother real estate men, who had come from all parts of the United States, about this subject of city planning. These men who had platted and laid out subdivisions comprising thousands of acres, men whose dealings had run into the millions of dollars, to my surprise took no interest whatever in the subject of city planning. I was rapidly forced to the conclusion that we needed widespread education along the lines of city planning and that we real estate men had better begin at home. The propaganda should start with ourselves. We should find some point of contact between ourselves and the professional city planners. Upon reflection I concluded that a point of common interest was the subdivision and that the experience of real estate men in sales campaigns qualified them to advise, in a practical way, on an educational campaign in city planning. You all know that the real estate men spend more for advertising and are more interested in its practical results than any other group of people who have to do with city planning. They advertise to obtain results.

The secret of a successful propaganda, whether it is for the marketing of a new chewing gum or for the sale of a million dollar subdivision, is the intelligent persistence that is put into it. The laws of publicity, of which advertising is a part, apply as well to the establishment of city planning as a national institution, with the difference that where the real estate operator pays thousands of dollars for space in the newspapers, the city planning organization gets a better space in the news columns for nothing. The city planning report that was made at the Real Estate Convention at Pittsburgh recommended that the City Planning Committee should become one of active importance; that

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it should actively enter the field and be not merely a committee to discuss these subjects once a year and make a report, then forget about it for another twelve months.

The authority requested by the City Planning Committee was granted by the National Association and the committee was instructed to affiliate itself with committees from other associations, such as the National Housing Association, American Civic Association and this City Planning Conference.

At Mr. Harsch's suggestion our City Planning Committee met in Washington last December in attendance at the American Civic Convention. While there, of course, we got into a hotbed of city planning men; among them were Mr. Nolen, Mr. Olmsted, Mr. Ford and others. The suggestion was made there that we should have some joint action among the various associations that were working along the line of city planning. In other words, the idea was that we should concentrate the interests of all the associations which touch on city planning into a single committee that should take up a widespread educational propaganda.

I suppose it was really up to the real estate men, as practical operators, to go ahead with this plan, but we find, in spite of what Mr. Harsch said this morning about you city planners, that there are among you some exceedingly practical men. Mr. Ford is one of these and seized the suggestion, that was made in this meeting in Washington, to proceed to get into correspondence with fourteen national organizations that have more or less to do with the subject of city planning. His efforts have been so successful in interesting the executive officers of these organizations that we have here at this conference representatives from twelve national associations. They represent a membership, as near as we can estimate, of from twenty-five to thirty thousand members. Those various representatives will meet on this occasion to discuss methods for instituting a campaign of educational publicity.

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When we stop to think of the tremendous potential influence of the different organizations and the widespread power of their membership and how it is possible, through them, to reach into every city and town in the United States, we can then realize how epochal this meeting will be if it will bring about the direction of all that influence toward intelligent city planning.

Mr. Ford has arranged a meeting to take place after the regular session this evening, at which representatives from these organizations will talk over such a movement.

Why should we not, as Mr. Adams suggested at a breakfast meeting this morning, undertake to get the coöperation of one of the departments of our government, as they do in Canada? The services of the Post Office Department should at least be enlisted in the distribution, at the proper times and places, of our educational literature.

The associations that are interested here have been gathering together and marshaling their forces for a number of years. The City Planning Conference is now in its seventh year. It has lived through its period of organization and has grown lusty during its playtime. It has come to its maturity, and a very early maturity at that, because the American Banking Association for twenty-five years met, talked, did nothing and went home. Finally they started some practical ideas. Someone suggested that their committees undertake the education of the public along various lines. They came to the belated conclusion that the great benefit from their meeting should be the ideas and education that they could impart to their people at home. In the Northwest the bankers are leading in the movement for agricultural education. They are even making miniature county fairs of their banking rooms for the display of fruits and vegetables. They are doing this for the indirect benefit to their fraternity that comes from the prosperity of their community.

The National Real Estate Association has been in existence for eight years. It is now time for them to do some-

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thing, and there are several other associations that have been in existence long enough to take an active interest. A personal acquaintance has been created and a spread of friendliness that can be turned to wonderful account. Is there higher altruism than the coöperation of these associations in the advancement of city planning? Is it not time for us to find some practical way of utilizing this fund of friendship, to devote it in a practical way to accomplishing practical ends and making it blossom forth in a broad work of altruism?

KING G. THOMPSON, *Columbus, Ohio*:

Since in my opinion the campaign of education proposed by this body must begin with the subdivider, I do not know how I can better serve the purpose of this meeting than by giving you my personal experience in attempting to apply to my business some of the ideas of city planning. We may work out an ideal plan of beautification for our city, but when that plan is done we must answer many practical questions. Do the streets serve the purposes of trade as well or better than those existing? How can the money be raised to make these improvements? Will it pay, etc.? Now the subdivider must answer these questions for himself, and upon his answer depends a large part of our city planning.

My purpose here today is to give the point of view of one who is in the land business for the primary purpose of making money. I did not enter the land business some years ago because I had any theories of city building to work out, but merely because I thought I could make a living at it. Secondarily I have been developing a great and growing interest in the humanitarian side of my business. One cannot follow this line of business long without coming to see the tremendous importance of city planning and intelligent platting to the coming generations. We have suffered too much from the errors of the past generation not to be concerned over what follows us.

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In Columbus, as in most other cities of this country, the owner of unplatted land has used his own discretion in platting, with very little thought for surrounding property and little consideration for future generations. It almost seems as if the owners in the past doubted the continued growth of cities, so little preparation did they make for the future. We have large subdivisions in Columbus where not a single street coincides with the streets on abutting property. We have had for some time laws requiring the approval of street layout by the county commissioners and the city engineers, also the director of public service, and conditions have vastly improved, but the great and encouraging improvement has come through education. The educational work done by the National Real Estate Association and this organization has been eagerly followed by subdividers.

The public has come to appreciate the results of city planning as never before. The real estate man must keep pace if he is to succeed. He must give the public more park space, wider and more direct thoroughfares and quieter, more attractive residence streets. I have been going through the evolution I have indicated along with the rest, and I am quite sure that the success of subdivisions in the future will depend more upon the landscape engineer than the civil engineer. It is, of course, true that the plans of any landscape engineer must be adjusted to meet local conditions and the state of public opinion in a given locality, but I consider the landscape engineer indispensable in any large undertaking and very valuable in a small one.

It may be of interest to those of you who are subdividers to get a résumé of the results of our work in Columbus, a city of 200,000 people. I have there in the last 12 years subdivided some 1400 acres of land in tracts ranging from 10 to 200 acres. These subdivisions have been uniformly successful from the usual standpoint, but I cannot be as proud of them as I would like from the standpoint of a city planner. Blame for this result is due to my lack of knowl-

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edge and inspiration. I simply followed in the footpath of my predecessors, looking at the land as a purely commercial proposition to be bought and sold at so much per yard or foot. We have begun to see now that that view of real estate is not the correct one and that we have an equity in our neighbor's lot as well as in the street which passes in front of both our homes. The subdivisions to which I referred were laid out for the most part as a tailor cuts his suit of clothes — to get the most out of his cloth. This represents our error and our loss, for if I had the same land today, I could not only make a great deal more money out of it, but I could do the community a service which would live long after I am dead and leave a permanent imprint on my city.

It is true that in the last few years we had begun to get more light and had begun to curve our streets, even where the rough nature of the land did not require it, and to dedicate small parks and otherwise spend money on beautification. The results, as I look over these subdivisions today, are so far from what they might have been that I am willing to make to you a most humble confession of a failure, in the hope that it may help others to avoid similar errors.

Some five years ago Mr. Kelsey, Mr. Robinson, and others were employed to work out a city plan for Columbus. Outside of an unsuccessful effort to vote \$350,000 of bonds for a City Hall site, nothing has been done under these plans, and yet I believe they are firmly fastened on our city and the educational work done through the public agitation concerning these plans has made it impossible for any important public improvement in the future to be made without some reference to these plans. It is like the sower who went forth to sow. Some of the seed has fallen on good ground and will some day blossom into a definite program of beautification and rearrangement of streets.

A most noticeable effect is shown in recent subdivision

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work about Columbus. Subdividers were quick to see the appeal which could be made to the public by applying these plans for beautification and for the extension of main thoroughfares through that part of the suburbs in which they were operating. For example, we have purchased 1000 acres lying four to five miles from the center of the city between the Scioto and Olentangy rivers, which unite near the center of the city, a section comparatively undeveloped, and since last August have sold \$200,000 worth of lots and have now under construction eight homes ranging in price from \$5000 to \$15,000 each. I am giving these figures concerning our own development to emphasize the fact that planning pays. During the past six months the sale of lots in ordinary straight street subdivisions has been very slow, and I believe the measure of success which has come to us would have been impossible if we had not had the inspiration of the Columbus city plan and if we had not in accordance with that plan laid out a subdivision which will afford the people of Columbus not only better access to the city, but more beautiful drives and more park space. We have planned out streets and thoroughfares to anticipate the needs of future generations and we have added as much beautification as possible, always being careful not to interfere with the main purpose of streets, that of conveying traffic.

I believe that with facts and figures I can demonstrate to any hard-headed subdivider that beautification pays in dollars and cents. I believe that I can go further and say that if local conditions are met, a plan of beautification and a scientific study of streets and thoroughfares are indispensable to success. I think I would now as soon attempt to build a house without the services of an architect as I would lay out a subdivision without the help of a landscape architect. When I make these statements, I realize that they sound trite to you, but when I consider the long road I have traveled to reach these conclusions, I know that they are not said in vain.

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MR. OLMSTED:

What I have to say is with reference to what was said this morning by Mr. Bartholomew in discussing the lot sizes at Newark. I wish also to talk upon the paper of Mr. Thompson. Both of these speakers were discussing the variations in the width of lots only, assuming a certain fixed depth. Of course we all know that such adjustments in width are very important in order to get the lots right in width for given conditions. But we must not forget that it is quite possible, if you make a mistake, to change the lot width. Where the lots are plotted 25 by 100 the lot width is often adjusted to meet the needs of purchasers by splitting two lots into three, giving a $16\frac{2}{3}$ foot width, or by cutting three lots into two, giving a $37\frac{1}{2}$ foot width, or otherwise. On the other hand, when once you fix the lot depth, you fix it for all time. If changed at all it can only be by very difficult and usually bad expedients. So, from the point of view of city planning, the question of lot depths is of much more vital importance than lot widths, the two being very closely interrelated.

Mr. Bartholomew pointed out the evils of the narrow 25 foot width, evils that we all recognize. He urged that the lots ought to be, say, $33\frac{1}{3}$ feet wide instead of 25. But he was talking about making them $33\frac{1}{3}$ by 100 instead of 25 by 100. That means a more costly lot, a lot upon which it is impossible for people to live without giving up more money for rent. What we most need to seek is a lot for the same price which is better than the 25 by 100.

I did a little figuring after I heard Mr. Bartholomew's paper. The total cost, which determines the price at which lots can be profitably sold, is made up of two main elements. One is the cost of the undeveloped vacant land. The other is the cost of development, including street construction and other incidentals. Assuming that the land cost 5 cents per square foot gross, that is just over \$2000 an acre, the land cost for a 25 by 100 lot — including half the width of a 50 foot street, or a total area of 3125 square feet —

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would be \$156.25. Assuming that the improvements cost \$5 per front foot, that element of the total cost would amount to \$125 for a 25 by 100 lot, making \$281.25 for the cost of the lot. Now, if you make that lot $33\frac{1}{3}$ feet wide, it means that you have increased its share in the cost of improvements approximately in proportion to the frontage of the lot — not exactly so, because there are other factors, but roughly in proportion to the frontage. You must, therefore, allow \$166.66 as the cost for the improvements. If the lot is to sell at the same price, its cost must be limited to the same figure as before, \$281.25. This leaves you only \$114.59 for the land. At 5 cents a foot, that comes to 2292 square feet, and if you have the same width of street as you had before, 50 feet, that gives you a lot only $43\frac{3}{4}$ feet deep. The question is whether for the purchaser and for the city a lot $33\frac{1}{3}$ feet wide and only $43\frac{3}{4}$ feet deep is a better proposition than a lot 25 by 100.

The above comparison is not quite fair because it is to be assumed that in the long run a street bordered by such very shallow lots would be less intensively used than one bordered by deep lots. Suppose we assume a reduction of the width of the street from 50 to 40 feet, reducing the land occupied by the street and also cheapening the improvements per front foot. On that basis, figuring 40 foot streets and allowing as little as \$4 a front foot for the improvements, a lot $33\frac{1}{3}$ feet wide would be chargeable with \$133.33 for improvements, leaving \$147.92 out of the total cost of \$281.25 to pay for land. At 5 cents per square foot that gives 2958 square feet, including half the width of the street, or, after deducting half the width of the street, a lot $68\frac{3}{4}$ feet deep. Upon the assumptions I have made, therefore, one could get for the same cost either a lot 25 by 100 feet on a 50 foot street or a lot $33\frac{1}{3}$ feet by $68\frac{3}{4}$ on a 40 foot street. I think most of us would agree that for a detached single family residence the latter is a better lot, although it contains about 10 per cent less area. Even that is open to argument and a strong case

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can be made against it on the score of inadaptability to other uses.

To sum up, for the same cost you cannot have as large a lot if it is wide and shallow as you can if it is narrow and deep. But a smaller wide lot, which can be produced for the same cost, may be worth more to the occupant than a larger narrow lot. When the public understands this to be the case, it will pay more for the wider smaller lot and real estate developers will be quick to supply the demand.

What we need to get at is a better basis for determining what is the happy mean, under given conditions, between the impossibly narrow deep lot of comparatively large area and the impossibly shallow wide lot of comparatively small area, since we cannot as a matter of economics give the same area in each.

MR. N. P. LEWIS, *New York*:

I am very glad indeed that this subject of land subdivision was put on the program. It marks a distinct advance in the usefulness of our discussion.

Land subdivision, after all, is city planning. City planning is land subdivision. In the report of the committee, references were constantly made to standard lot widths. These standard units, I think the committee will admit, are selling units. While they prevail quite generally, they are by no means units for building. For instance, in those portions of New York City where the lot unit is 20 by 100 feet, we find that builders who have three lots will frequently divide them into four building plots, each but 15 feet wide. If they have four lots, amounting to 80 feet, they will divide them usually into either five or six building plots. Similarly, the man who has five lots, or 100 feet, is very apt to subdivide the plot to permit the erection of six, seven, or even eight houses. Of course, they are attached or block houses. The result is that while a standard lot unit of 20 by 100 feet prevails, the house unit is any old thing, and we find them $12\frac{1}{2}$, $13\frac{1}{3}$, 15, 16

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and $17\frac{1}{2}$ feet in width, and relatively few of them 20 feet wide or of the same width as the original selling unit. In fact, there is no such thing as a standard lot for building in most cities.

While I do not want to repeat Mr. Olmsted's argument, I do want to briefly outline a little experimental subdivision which I made on an area comprising approximately 25 acres of actual plotting in Brooklyn; a triangular area bounded on two sides by streets 100 feet wide, on the third side by a street 80 feet wide. The subdivision now existing is the entirely conventional one prevailing in the neighborhood. It is divided into blocks 200 by 700 feet in length, streets 60 feet wide in the one direction, and 80 feet in the other. The buildings thus far erected have been on 40 foot plots. That seems to be the type of development expected. All of those lots are 100 feet deep. This method of subdivision gives 204 plots, although on account of the oblique intersection of some of the streets with the diagonals, some of the lots were irregular in size and shape. The average was 4041 square feet.

The subdivision of that same area by streets 40 and 50 feet in width, — I venture to suggest those widths for the reason that we are sure of our bounding streets of 80 or 100 feet, — will result in a considerably increased expenditure for sewers, curb and sidewalk, but allowing for roadways of 16 and 20 feet in width, which will suffice in that neighborhood, the area of the street pavement will be very largely reduced, and the cost per lot, — 50 feet in width and 60 feet in depth, of which there will be 259 as against 204 under the conventional plan, will be \$478 instead of \$589. These estimates are based upon the use of asphalt pavement. If macadam were used for the roadways the difference in cost would be reduced from \$121 to \$95, but it would still be in favor of the plan providing for the wider and shallower lot, while this plan also provides a little neighborhood park of half an acre.

The committee states that most of the cities reporting expressed the belief that there should be a standard. In

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my judgment a standardized lot would be distinct misfortune. A standard lot will inevitably mean a uniform depth, with a varying frontage when it comes to building, and, with the irregular areas which we find in any intelligently planned city, I believe in allowing the largest latitude in the subdivision of such areas, whether they are to be devoted to homes or business.

MR. HENRY WRIGHT, *St. Louis:*

Although appointed chairman of the committee for St. Louis, one of the cities selected by your general committee, I have to offer as an excuse for not having forwarded my report the fact that we have just been having a city planning exhibit in which I have taken active part and which has largely occupied my time during the last few months.

Previous to this time I had carefully examined the reports sent out by your committee and I have listened with interest to the discussion of the subject during the present conference. It seems to me, without wishing to be considered critical, that almost your entire discussion of the subdivision problem has been directed to conditions arising in older cities, such as those principally found in the Eastern States, and does not altogether apply to the problem as found in the newer Western cities. The deductions seem to be centered upon an attempt to subdivide residential property in such a way as later to accommodate its usefulness for business, or at least for other purposes requiring a much more congested population than that originally intended. The various examples cited in detail by some of your committees would seem to suggest this as being of paramount importance. However, it might be well to stop and question whether those conditions which have arisen over a century of changes, largely during a period of inadequate transportation, will necessarily be repeated in the next century with rapid transportation and automobile convenience. In the light of the changes which are taking place in our cities, due to these more modern influences, it

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seems to me that the general problem is somewhat altered so that in the future we may encounter a situation, such as that now actually taking place in St. Louis, in which the older sections of the city are being evacuated fully as rapidly, or in many cases more rapidly, than they are being reoccupied, so that while the character of the occupants may continually change, the tendency of congesting the outlying portions of the city has materially diminished.

Should this premise seem reasonable, it would then seem to be more rational to direct our main attention, not to preparing our residential property for some future use other than for residential purposes, but rather to study and prepare such property for its best use and highest efficiency for the purpose for which it is originally developed.

Perhaps this might be qualified to the extent of dividing the city into zones; for instance, in a city such as St. Louis — the plan of which is a huge fan radiating from the business center — there would be first the logical business district of two miles radius, next the probable business and manufacturing district of perhaps three miles additional radius, and finally the border district of three to four miles additional radius, in which it may be well to anticipate certain business centers, but in which it would seem unnecessary to consider the transition of the whole district into anything other than property suitable for living purposes. This might seem still more convincing when we consider that the area of the business district contains approximately five square miles, the second zone ten and the final zone thirty-five square miles. Certainly throughout this final zone the importance of its probable use as residential property could be permitted to take precedence over the uncertain possible conversion into business property, especially should our cities adopt the zone system which is becoming most notable in all of the later general city plans where advanced thought is being applied. I have therefore directed my own thought primarily upon the problem of how best to subdivide property for the usual standard resi-

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dential conditions to be found in our own community, with due consideration of experience elsewhere. My own activities being largely occupied in an exclusive class of subdivision which would be of no value to this study, I trust that I have been able to look at this problem from an unprejudiced viewpoint.

In St. Louis we have what will seem to most of you an unusually generous method of subdivision; practically all streets are 60 feet wide and the lots average 160 feet deep with additional space of 15 feet for alleys. Even with this generous lot depth, street spaces, including cross streets and alleys, occupy over 25 per cent of the actual ground area. The result of this wasteful and over-generous subdivision has had, I believe, a direct bearing upon the character of the improvements and use of the property. The proportion of individual residences during the recent years is quite small and the so-called "flat" — a building containing a common party wall and two individual units on each floor — has become the rule. This would seem to be a direct result of a high front foot cost caused partly at least by a deep lot subdivision and excessively expensive street improvements.

I deduced from my early examination of conditions a theory that a reduction in both of the above elements would result in a larger percentage of individual lot ownership, which is certainly a thing devoutly to be desired. I have been fortunate to find that actual conditions seem to bear out this theory in some of the more recent subdivisions, although it has been difficult exactly to parallel the original conditions. Before citing one such comparison permit me to indulge in one other theoretical deduction, which may seem to have a bearing more upon the plan of the city as a whole rather than the individual lot subdivision, but which, nevertheless, will affect the individual property owner in reducing the front foot cost; this is the actual street arrangement. Practically all of our residential territory has been laid out with frontage streets running toward the

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business center. This necessitates additional cross streets in order to reach the main lines of communication. The general practice of this has led to making all such streets of a uniform width of 60 feet because of the possibility that any one of these may become a main avenue of passage for the public. The roadway of such a street cannot well be less than 30 feet and is usually at least 36 feet wide — much wider than is required for any private use — and those owning property fronting upon any given street which may be well paved are at once penalized for their thriftiness by inviting a continuous stream of main traffic by their doors. This may certainly be corrected to a large extent by establishing the general principle that as many streets as possible designed for private use should either not be laid out continuous or should run at right angles to the main line of traffic, the latter seeming to have the greater advantage. Of course such a rule presages the existence of sufficient main streets to accommodate the public traffic. A roadway 26 feet wide, or in many cases no more than 20 feet, is quite sufficient for a shorter private thoroughfare, not only saving in cost, but increasing the amount of space devoted to parking, which in our city is usually only 4 to 6 feet and quite insufficient for the growth of well developed trees. The principal advantage, however, will be that of securing greater privacy and permanency for residential use, and thus to counteract to some extent the tendency toward rapid abandonment of residential districts, which has been the chief cause of those conditions necessitating an altered use of such property.

Permit me to follow out these theories with an actual case in the more recent development of St. Louis, in which two sections are taken in the same neighborhood, each containing about 90 acres and extending back 1800 feet from the central line, which is the principal main thoroughfare of that section. On one side the property takes in a part of three different subdivisions, all on right angle lines with main frontage paralleling the principal street and having

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the necessary cross streets, while in the opposite subdivision the whole has been developed under a single plan in which curvilinear streets have been used, but in which the street arrangement is such as to eliminate a considerable percentage of waste side frontage.

In the latter the streets having no through connection are narrower, permitting a greater privacy, a much shallower lot subdivision and a decreased cost of construction and maintenance.

The results may be tabulated here as follows:

	Left	Right
Area of tract	90 acres	92 acres
Number of lots	380	370
Building frontage	17,600 feet	22,400 feet
Side frontage	8,200 feet	5,600 feet
Average frontage	49 feet	63 feet
Average depth	165 feet	135 feet
Cost per front foot ¹	\$22	\$17

While the value of such an actual example is always impaired by the existence of special conditions which cannot be entirely explained, I feel that I can safely say that in the case of the two sections above cited the external conditions have been such as to give them an equal advantage in the matter of their development, with the preference if any in favor of the straight line subdivision. However, the individual improvements are relatively more attractive in the other section. As shown by the table, the resident has in the right hand subdivision the advantage of the wider frontage, at the same cost per lot, and this seems almost invariably to result in at least a more attractive architectural design, and in most cases the better maintenance of the property, both public and private, than is to be found in the opposite section.

The result of greater privacy is already being felt, the

¹ Cost based upon same value of land, \$2000 per acre, and assuming same grading cost and same price per unit for improvements.

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tendency being to keep up the standard on the right hand and to reduce it under some conditions on the left.

I feel that this is quite sufficient to establish the superiority of a residential property of comparatively broad frontage and shallow depth, with a street arrangement offering a maximum of privacy.

HON. EDWARD M. BASSETT, *New York:*

I think that the suggestion of intermediate unopened streets is one that has been considered in New York City, but there at least it would have many disadvantages. One would be that while the street was on the map and unopened, people would build in the bed of it, even locate on it industries with large buildings, and then when the street was opened later, the cost of purchasing and demolishing these buildings would be assessed upon the abutting property. It is often an invitation to builders because they know that sooner or later the city will buy their improvements. It is therefore very necessary in our state that there should be an ability to preserve the bed of proposed public streets against improvements which will have to be paid for later.

In New York City, and especially in the Borough of Queens, there is a tendency to lay out building plots sufficiently large so that the home owner can have his own automobile garage and space beside his home for access to it. We are going to hear more of this in the next ten years because automobiles are getting so inexpensive.

In the law office with which I am connected we make a good many first mortgages to small builders in the Borough of Queens, and during the last six months I have heard from at least ten builders who usually construct houses on lots of about 20 to 30 feet in width and 100 feet in depth. Now they want wider lots in order to leave a space for automobiles between the houses. They tell me that if this is not done it hurts in the selling of the house. These houses sell for \$3800 to \$4500. You cannot make a building lot much under 100 feet in depth and still provide a living

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place for a small household with the conveniences that seem to be coming in the future, reckoning as one of these conveniences, the low priced automobile, which seems to be taking the place of the summer vacation for many families of moderate means.

MR. THOMAS ADAMS, *Ottaw, Can.:*

I think that we have scarcely appreciated an important difference between England and the American continent, namely, the comparative scarcity and dearth of land on this side of the Atlantic. The American system of subdividing land and speculating in its building use causes real scarcity for housing purposes in most cities. This condition helps to create a serious obstacle to giving greater spaciousness around buildings, to restricting heights of buildings and to providing deeper lots. It is difficult to see how we can standardize subdivisions since conditions differ in different cities as well as during different periods of time in each locality. The justification for the existence of the town planner as a professional man lies in the fact that circumstances vary to such an extent in regard to all these matters that every scheme of land development for building purposes should be considered on its merits. One of the proposals of town planners is that there should be a zoning system for factories and residences; the depth of subdivisions in factory districts must be determined on quite different principles from those which have to be fixed in a residential district. If we have to fix a minimum, it should not be less than 125 feet, but in residential neighborhoods in the suburbs of towns it should be 150 to 200 feet.

With regard to the question of erecting buildings on the rear parts of lots, it is obvious that that is a matter which should be regulated by fixing the proportion of lots to be built upon and requiring separate street access to each building. If we did that, it would not be necessary to limit the depths of lots as a means of preventing rear buildings being erected. It might be that in exceptional cases the

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town planner should advise the construction of an extra street and the use of land in rear lots for building purposes, but except under a properly considered scheme for remodeling a developed area according to strict hygienic principles, there should be a bar against building on rear lots. The proportion of a lot to be built upon should be determined and rigidly adhered to in general cases.

In considering the British schemes to which one speaker has made reference, it has to be remembered that one of the aims of the promoters of the garden villages of England is to secure greater spaciousness around the homes of the people without extra cost for development being incurred. In other words, the cost of constructing local improvements is sought to be reduced by these schemes sufficiently to cover the extra cost of the larger area of land given to each house. That is a matter of laying out the land on intelligent principles and not allowing it to be developed on hard and fast rules. We have to adjust our schemes to economic conditions and accomplish the best possible results amidst circumstances which can never be ideal. We have also to adjust differences between those who represent public and those who possess private interests. These are matters which can never be satisfactorily governed by general by-law. They require the exercise of discretion, intelligence and skill to deal with them, and that is precisely the reason why a town planner is so much needed as a guide in connection with all kinds of city development. To fix a minimum nearly always means to create a standard, and if this conference makes a definite recommendation on the subject of depths of subdivisions, it is certain that the recommendation will be abused by those who want to use it to further some schemes of an undesirable character. The information that has been collected will be of great value as a guide to town planners, but it will be a mistake to make definite recommendations. At any rate it seems desirable that the studies should be continued for another year.

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MR. JOHN IHLDER, *New York*:

Unlike some of our British friends, as Mr. Adams, who can see nothing good in German city planning and housing, I believe that we Americans can find much that is good in English. Mr. Adams has spoken of the English practice of limiting the number of houses per acre. I believe that a good lead for us. But it must be remembered that in the residence districts of many of our cities the present practice is to build a considerably smaller number of houses per acre than the English standard — ten or twelve. As Mr. Adams himself says, there is the danger here of persuading people to accept a lower standard than they otherwise would. This, however, is a danger inherent in setting minimum standards. So we must be sure always to state that they *are* minimum and that really good building will not come down to them. The great value of such a minimum standard for the number of houses per acre is likely to appear, not in the first platting and building, but later when it is sought to thrust new houses among the old.

But valuable as this limitation of number of houses per acre may prove, it must be supplemented by the American practice of requiring a definite minimum number of feet of open space adjacent to every wall containing openings to light or ventilate the house. In Ruislip-Northwood, one of the most successful English developments under the provisions of the Housing and Town Planning, etc., Act of 1909, we found a group of houses on narrow, deep lots which complied with the twelve to the acre limitation, but which were only six feet apart. This is not adequate.

There is one further point we Americans must bear in mind. When the English speak of twelve houses per acre, they mean the dwellings of twelve families. A two family house counts as two houses, a twelve family tenement — if they had such a thing — would count as twelve houses and so call for a whole acre to itself. Of course without such an understanding of terms the limitation would be meaningless — consider twelve-family houses per acre!

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To go back to lot sizes. Some of the speakers have implied that there is a desire on the part of others to work out a single lot size which shall be universally applied. This they have vigorously condemned. But that is not my understanding of our purpose. May we not, by beginning with the size and number of rooms in houses designed for tenants of varying economic status, by studying the different types of houses, one, two and more families, detached, semi-detached, group and row, find a basis for certain general principles or even arrive at a fairly definite idea of the most practical lot width and depth in an area which is likely to undergo the usual transformations? There should be left as much liberty as possible of course, but the fact that we must lay out permanent streets the distance between which will represent the combined depth of lots fronting on the two streets makes impossible such complete liberty as Mr. Lewis advocates. So we must come to some conclusion as to the best lot depths at least.

MR. ALLEN B. POND, *Chicago*:

I was greatly interested in the remarks of Mr. Lewis. They brought once more clearly to mind what we are all prone to forget—the danger of generalizing on a too slender foundation of local conditions. Mr. Lewis emphasized the tendency in New York to split the wider lots into materially narrower lots, running from 13 feet up, and gave that as a reason why it was quite unimportant to pay attention to the matter of lot subdivision in laying out towns or additions to towns. In Chicago, outside of the central district and a few very high class residential districts, the average lot size has for many years been 25 feet in width and approximately 125 feet in depth. One could almost count on one's hands the number of instances in Chicago in which such lots or combination of such lots had been resubdivided into the narrower lots described by Mr. Lewis. The average small

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residential building in Chicago is either a single family house or a two or three family house built on the 25 foot lot, and the tendency today is to build two or three family houses on the 25 foot lot; and a result of this condition is that in every attempt in recent years to revise the building ordinances so as to give a greater width to side line courts, which are of the utmost importance in houses more than two rooms deep — and the Chicago buildings above referred to are three and more rooms deep — the effort has been fought by real estate dealers, subdividers of property and small owners on the ground that it was impossible to use to advantage for two and three family buildings the standard 25 foot lot with a side court as wide as all the health experts insisted was necessary for proper hygiene. And the result of this situation is today that the prescribed minimum side line court is too narrow.

The more intelligent subdividers are beginning to make 30 feet and upwards their standard width, but we are still seriously handicapped by the enormous number of 25 feet subdivisions. I do not say that it is desirable that there should be legislation fixing in any community the minimum lot subdivision, either as to width or depth, but I insist that it is highly desirable that in every community there be established by custom if not by legislation, and that such custom be bulwarked in strong expert opinion, a minimum width and possibly a minimum depth. Obviously such a restriction, whether in the form of legislation or in the form of custom growing out of expert opinion, must differ with the varying conditions in the different communities, and we must not allow ourselves to lay down general principles deduced from ultraurban conditions in one part of the country to conditions urban and suburban in other parts of the country, for such generalizations will be certain to do harm.

Mr. Ford rightly pointed out the bearing of the question of the use and occupancy upon the question of lot dimensions. Obviously, if a community adopts a zone system

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and differentiates areas by type of occupancy and function, the problem is enormously simplified. Until such time as we in America undertake to differentiate areas by occupancy and function we can perhaps avoid some of the difficulties pointed out by Mr. Ford by abandoning the back alley. Mr. Ford and others have made the comment that the shallow lot does not lend itself readily to a conversion from residential function to manufacturing and commercial function and that a reasonable degree of convertibility should be held in mind in making subdivisions in city planning generally.

History in the West seems to show that public service functions, whether operated by the city or by private corporation, make more and more use of alleys. This, added to the fact that the American has the bad habit of assuming that whatever is and has been is sacred and that once an alley always an alley, has the result of placing in the alleys permanent conduits for public service uses, with the result that the vacation of the alleys becomes difficult or almost impossible. The abandonment in advance of the alley scheme makes it possible to convert shallow residential lots contiguous at the rear into industrial and commercial property of suitable depth by the easy process of going through from street to street. In other words, it is not impracticable to subdivide into lots of great width and lesser depth — practicable from the standpoint of shape for the building of houses and tenements two rooms deep, and at the same time convertible into property suitable for business purposes by the combining of lots on two streets in one ownership or under one lease.

MR. E. C. MERSHON, *Saginaw, Mich.*:

In this discussion of the best methods of land subdivision and the recommendation as to the adoption of a minimum standard depth and width of lot, I think it is lost sight of that usually in the original subdivision of land the purpose is to provide a lot suitable in every way to the de-

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tached house. In studying the housing problem in connection with city planning, those best informed, I believe, are a unit in the opinion that the ideal living conditions are those provided in the detached dwelling with space on both sides of the house, room in front of the house for flower gardens or lawn, and room in the rear for plenty of air space and a garden if desired.

Thus the best land subdivision would be the size of lot usually provided in the suburb, approximately 60 feet by 120 more or less.

Those who have urged against the shallow lot and who demand 100 feet as the minimum depth of a lot undoubtedly have the above conditions in mind. But if any one thing has been shown in these various conferences, it is that a city planned originally with deep lots brings about conditions such as have been illustrated time and again on the blackboard at these conferences and by blue prints hung on our walls; and that the worst conditions existing in our cities, which breed slums and disease, are those brought about by the large block containing deep lots. Every single instance which has been held up as a "terrible example" has depicted such a block and illustrated the evil of the deep lot.

The solution in my opinion is to allow, as you will have to, the deep lot in our suburbs, but for the city to retain the authority or to acquire the authority of replatting the objectionable blocks, cutting down the deep lot to one half of its original depth, making the lots from 50 to 60 feet in depth, thus leaving in the center of the block a large airy court under public control which can be used for playgrounds, for the parking of automobiles, for public baths, for allotment gardens, for public laundries, for the administration of so-called settlement work, including necessary administration buildings, dispensaries, social quarters and the thousand and one purposes for which cheap real estate is required. Open up these courts to the streets so that the passer-by can see that they main-

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tain the same attractive conditions that our streets, parkways, playgrounds, etc., do.

CHARLES W. LEAVITT, *New York*:

In all of the discussion on the subject of the subdivision of land which has taken place at this conference there are several points which have not been touched upon and which, from my experience of some twenty years, during which I have been actually engaged in land subdivision in many parts of the United States and Canada, I have found to be quite essential.

The first of these is the importance of existing conditions, by which I mean the peculiarities of the soil, whether it is sandy, open and well drained, such as that on Long Island, or heavy and silty, hard to drain, such as that found in the state of Louisiana; whether the land is subject to smoke blown from factories or other activities in the city; whether it is free from the soot nuisance.

Second, the kind and the height of the buildings which must be built on the land; whether they are to have masonry walls or are to be built as we find them in the tropics, with the walls of louvers; whether they are to be ornate or matter of fact business structures.

Third, general exposure; whether the property faces north, south, east or west; whether it is subject to prevalent winds or is on the leeward side of a hill or mountain; whether the elevation is high and exhilarating or whether it is on the seaboard.

Fourth, the width of streets. Do the conditions warrant wide, open streets, as one might find at Colorado Springs, giving easy access for plenty of air and ventilation, or must the work be done on narrow cross streets, as one finds around Baltimore, Philadelphia and some of the environs of New York City and Boston?

Fifth, climate. Is the subdivision to be made in Winnipeg, Man.; Montreal, Que.; Toronto, Ont.; San Francisco, Cal.; Duluth, Minn.; New York City; Venice, Italy; New

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Orleans, La.; Birmingham, Ala.; Atlanta, Ga.; Tampa, Fla., or Kingston, Jamaica? In all of these places I have been familiar with the problem of the subdivision of land, and the range of climate in Manitoba, from 100° in summer to 60° below zero in winter, certainly demands a very different layout than that in Kingston, where the thermometer is about 90° the year round, with very high humidity, in contrast to that of Manitoba, which has almost none.

Sixth, local demand. We find that the American demands more room than the Italian, that the French and English want more than the German, that the working classes are satisfied with buildings huddled together and that the wealthy classes run to great extremes in this particular, from small rooms in crowded hotels to enormous country estates. The actual local demand of each particular street should be taken into consideration in planning the lots on that street.

While standards may be fixed as to size of lots, say 20 by 80, 40 by 100, 75 by 150, 100 by 200, 200 by 400, or what you will, in each case I think that in this, as in other considerations, the worker must be guided in each instance by the several points which I have mentioned above, and standards, if they are to be fixed, must be based on such a schedule that not only these points but many others which have been discussed in this conference will receive due attention. The whole matter is involved, and it is only after years of study of many conditions that anyone can hope to be able to acquire the knowledge to subdivide intelligently and make the land valuable for future as well as present use.

THE ARCHITECTURAL SIDE OF CITY PLANNING

FREDERICK L. ACKERMAN

Member American Institute of Architects, New York City

I AM requested to speak to you upon the topic: The Architectural Side of City Planning. Now I wonder what these terms signify to each of us. I do not know exactly what they mean to you. I know that these terms have for each of us a certain definite meaning which is shaded by our experiences; and our individual conceptions range from ideas quite similar in their nature to those approaching the opposite in meaning. I make no attempt to define the terms "architecture" and "city planning," nor do I ask that you accept the interpretation which I wish to give to them. I simply wish to surround each with a group of associate ideas so that there may be established a better understanding between us.

The term "architecture" in connection with city planning brings to the minds of most of us visions of well ordered cities containing elements of beauty, things monumental in character, things decorative. Our group of associated ideas is limited by our experience. We differentiate for example between engineering and architectural conceptions in a very curious way. I do not wish to quibble over these terms. A mere definition is of no consequence. All that I desire to express is that I shall use the term "architecture" in a broader sense than is our custom. I shall use it as an all inclusive term embracing both the utilitarian and the esthetic in our physical environment.

Likewise, for a better mutual understanding, let me surround the term "city planning" with a number of

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associate ideas. As I conceive the term, city planning is not a series of legislative acts, as so many assume, imposing upon a people a set of conditions to which their lives must be warped into conformity; it is not merely the carrying out of certain theories developed by city planning engineers, and by students of social and economic conditions or of the ideals of the architect. It is not merely the providing for adequate transportation, proper sanitation, better housing or more beautiful surroundings. It is more than all of these. City planning is the act of providing a more adequate physical expression for the composite ideals of groups of people thrown together by social and economic forces in our communities.

Our composite thought, our culture, is expressed in our physical environment through many subtle forces and influences, both conscious and unconscious. City planning is not a substitute for these forces; it is rather a conscious effort to transform our vague ideals of community living into forms which will accurately express such ideals.

So much for the general meaning of the terms. I shall not attempt here to discuss merely the esthetic side of the subject, nor the value of such. I believe most of us have developed beyond the point where it is first necessary that the economic value of beauty be established before its worth may be considered. I believe also that most of us recognize in art that there is a set of values quite apart from any measured by a monetary scale. I shall confine my remarks to the broader phase of architectural expression as already suggested and shall consider the causes which have to do with the character of physical environment.

We all recognize the compound temperamental traits, moral attitudes, artistic styles, literary values, customs, manners, which make the various nations so strikingly different one from another. Through an interweaving of sociological and physical causes too complex to unravel, national cultures have grown up side by side upon every continent. Some subtle influence stamps everything from

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look of town and countryside to personality of the individual with a peculiar quality. A New England village is a New England village. A Western town is a town with a design and a personality of its own.

Now the expression of all the subtle, complex influences makes itself manifest to us, to a very great degree, through our sense of sight and the inert medium of materials. Natural conditions, such as geographical location and climate, exert influences; but in the main, human agencies work the transformations and make things expressive of ideas. When the expression is phrased in certain forms, it is called "engineering," "architecture," "art."

The term "art" to the American mind suggests a very limited group of associate ideas. For the great part, such ideas relate to ages past and to other peoples. We assume "art" as being synonymous with "beauty" — a non-essential quality — an expression in no wise intimately related to the conditions surrounding our bread and butter existence.

The term should be interpreted in a broader sense, for it is alone through some sort of creative impulse that every subtle phase and variation of a people's composite nature finds an accurate expression.

Does sculpture or painting, or do the "works of art" or even the "monuments of architecture" or our "great feats of engineering" completely and adequately reveal the story of a civilization? Is it not also in the more prosaic forms of expression that we find the story told with equal accuracy and by the use of terms of more intimate appeal? Our rural homes, our villages, our cities — all that they contain, the good, the bad, the beautiful and the ugly, tell the true story — reveal the secrets. Into the great physical composite has been wrought, for the greater part by the unguided hand, all of our hopes, our aspirations and our fears. It is this physical composite which constitutes the real, vital art of a people. It is not the degree of attainment in a single phase alone which should

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serve as the basis of a true valuation; but rather it is the degree of attainment and the co-relation of all. With this broad interpretation of the term "art" in mind, it may be assumed that art is not so much an expression of a people's concept of beauty as it is a physical expression of their composite ideas, or in other words, their culture.

A language, to be universal must be composed of sounds representing exactly the same associate ideas. So it is with art. Beauty is not a quality of universal appeal, for the basis of valuation depends upon a group of associate ideas rather than upon an intrinsic quality in beauty.

Ideas are expressed through forms, lines and colors in art in the same way that ideas are expressed in language by sound. We are responsive; we understand in exactly the degree that the forms, lines or colors represent or define ideas which we possess. We speak lightly of a "universal art"; that does not now nor will it ever exist until there shall have been a complete standardization of ideas — or cultures. There are in art expressions a certain few elements or phases of more or less universal appeal; to that extent is art universal.

We possess a group of ideas or conceptions which differ in a fundamental way from those of Europe, both past and present. The foundation of our government rests not upon the principle that "Might makes Right," nor upon the principle known as the "Survival of the Fittest," but rather upon another theory known as that of "mutual dependence." It is this latter principle, recognized first by individuals, which led men to abandon their body arms, to discard the moat and drawbridge, to destroy the walls of their cities and therefor to substitute parks and rural homes.

The last quarter century in America, in Europe, and at the points where the great nations of Asia have come in contact with the rest of the world, has witnessed a chaotic condition of thought. Literature, art, and the processes of government illustrate this fact. In America, and particu-

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larly in Europe, is this true. In Europe it is the old against the new. In America it is the new endeavoring to express itself through vocabularies and forms not only old but foreign as well. Not only in the lives of individuals, as witnessed by our many societies working for better social and economic conditions, but in our governmental institutions do we express an acceptance of the theory of mutual dependence.

We have not as yet developed the political mechanism of democratic government; the present appears principally as a conflict of interests. Yet it seems to me that interwoven in the fabric of our complex social structure there is a definite tendency, so positive in its nature that it can well be termed an ideal. The deeper channels of our thought spring from a source, our conception of democracy, which is as clear and as well defined as were the sources of inspiration which evolved the great civilizations and their architecture of the past. In our effort toward self expression we have been adapting the institutions to the past and in the same way we have endeavored to find an adequate physical expression through the use of old forms, at best possessing but a very limited number of elements of universal appeal.

We speak of our cities as being "typically American" — suggesting that they are adequately expressive of our day and of our people. Superficially this may be true, but if one looks more deeply into their structure, he finds that they fall far short of being adequately expressive.

A structural element, the steel frame, came into existence but a generation ago; it gave to an individual a power undreamed of before. The old balanced relations of rights and privileges in the ownership of property were completely upset; this element had for an individual a power which made it possible for him to turn his "rights," under the old conditions, into acts detrimental to his neighbors. More than that — the old conditions regarding light and air were based upon an evolution of the idea of "mutual de-

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pendence." Suddenly the whole scheme of relations was changed by the multiplication of ground areas; and the previous provision for light within the block, established by tradition and law, was made absolutely inadequate. Individual owners of property, clinging to the traditional relations, asserted themselves against any new laws which would make proper provision for light and air, not because they had ceased to believe in the necessity for the same, but rather and solely because they did not understand that changed structural conditions had developed an entirely new set of relations between individual owners of property. They assumed that the city block could be developed plot by plot; and that the idea of voluntary coöperation and economic laws would solve the problem. They did not realize that voluntary coöperation is an impossibility in such cases; nor that the laws and ordinances restraining the individual were not a set of restrictions but rather simple acts insuring the principle of coöperation in building.

Our physical surroundings result from both a conscious and an unconscious effort. Forces, agencies and ideals go into the crucible of human endeavor and the product is that which we see and feel about us.

The impulse urging on the inventor or the man of science may be well defined; the reasons for, the object to be attained by, and the ultimate effect of the effort may be perfectly clear, yet the first attempts in the search for an adequate physical expression are always crude. These initial, halting steps must of a necessity be taken. Man must have something tangible with which to work. He is blind to the errors of his reasoning until those errors confront him as forms which he can see and feel.

So it is with a people. They likewise are urged on by many complex impulses toward a definite goal; and as with the inventor, if those impulses are to become other than mere aspirations, there must be provided a series of tangible forms to serve as the initial stepping stones of progress; these first crude attempts, inadequate though they may be,

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are absolutely necessary, for it is alone through the struggle for a proper and an adequate expression and the partial successes that the ideal behind an impulse can be kept alive. It is thus that the evolution of a people is insured and augmented.

It is not of value here to discuss the agencies through which other peoples have expressed their composite natures. Our concern is with the agencies in our democracy through which our peculiar culture may find an adequate expression.

If it be true that we have a definite ideal which we have failed to adequately express in our institutions and in our physical surroundings; if it also be true that progress or evolution can only result from a series of tangible expressions of our aspirations or our ideals; then the question arises: What are the elements lacking and how can they be supplied?

Without attempting an analysis of this complex question, I shall assume as a premise that education is the foundation upon which we must build, and also that the educational methods of the present day do not provide a proper foundation. Not until we shall have abandoned our system of "puzzle education" in our schools and introduced a system based upon some such educational philosophy, for example, as advocated by Dr. John Dewey and as carried out by Mr. Wirt in the schools of Gary, Ind., can we hope to provide conditions of the present day which will have a very direct relation to ourselves as individuals. The motive for study must be a knowledge of its value; the knowledge of a need must precede the process of supplying the need. Our whole educational policy has been a sort of memorizing process; few elements in it have been related to the world of today. Our institutions and our physical surroundings are accepted as being the result of natural laws and in themselves quite unrelated to ourselves. Our schools consider things in the abstract only; the application is left to chance. This curious process — for it is a process and little else — has led us to accept as a

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matter of course the most stupid physical arrangements in our cities, our villages and our rural homes.

In a book, "A Civic Biology," by Mr. George W. Hunter there is presented a method of teaching which is most suggestive. The chapter on "Man's Improvement of his Environment" indicates in a very specific way the possibilities of presenting the subject of physical surroundings, architecture and art to pupils whose previous experience had not provided them with even the most primary concepts concerning such things. This chapter in itself has little directly to do with architecture; it considers methods of improving sanitary conditions and subjects of a similar nature. It would be a simple matter indeed to extend the scope and include a group of subjects which would awaken in the minds of the pupils a keen interest in other phases of their physical environment of equal interest and importance. The beginning of the chapter states that its purpose is "to show how we as individuals may better our home environments, and secondly how we may aid civic authorities in bettering the conditions in the city in which we live." The few phases of this subject touched upon in this chapter cannot fail to awaken a keen interest, but it leaves quite untouched the larger group of ideas upon which town planning rests. This is too complex a subject to discuss in detail here, but I can see the possibility and I entertain the hope that someone will complete that chapter, adding the ideas which will make it clear to the child that there are things of interest for him to consider in our towns and our cities which are of vital interest to his comfort and his well being and which incidentally have to do with architecture and art.

All this may seem like a utopian dream. Why should it? In the public schools of New Jersey, under the direction of Mr. Dana, city planning is being taught, together with other subjects of a similar nature. Leaflet No. 23, issued by the superintendent of the public schools of Newark, illustrates the scope and nature of the work. The

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subject is made interesting and personal through the use of a local application of general principles. The child is induced to see that his physical surroundings are not, in many cases, adequate, and he is shown how few changes would be required to make them right. The esthetic phase of the subject appears as a resultant, and a more accurate valuation is given to the many elements which constitute our physical environment.

Upon the walls of our schoolhouses we hang only the most noble examples of the art and architecture of the past; we conjure up theories of how the elements of beauty therein contained will somehow elevate the taste of the child from the farm or the crowded spaces within our cities. I doubt whether they do anything of the kind. Under certain conditions, when used as Dr. Haney uses them in his art teaching in the public schools of New York, they become of value and an inspiration, but as used at present in most schools they are almost as inert as the plaster walls upon which they hang; they do not contain elements at all related to the child's life. It would be possible by induction, through the methods suggested by Dr. Dewey, and by starting with simple physical illustrations most intimately related to the child's life, to build up a sympathetic understanding of the meaning of simple forms and by comparison to create a definite ideal of such a nature that when the child went out into the world things would possess a new meaning, and that meaning would be expressed in terms of present day human interest.

It is quite possible through methods of suggestion to create in the minds of the children in urban and rural schools a definite ideal of adequate physical environment. If we were to select from the best examples the world has produced photographs and slides illustrative of adequate physical conditions of a simple, intimate nature, and see to it that the children were made acquainted with such ideas, there would be developed not only a higher ideal, but there would also be provided a very definite conception of the

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thing which would express that ideal. If in these illustrative examples there were elements of beauty, then beauty would become intimately related to life.

In our universities of higher education, with students thus provided with an educational background, relating forms to living conditions, it would be possible to extend the teaching. Instead of filling the mind with a mass of facts and formulas quite abstract in their nature, again we might by inductive methods and suggestion show how it is that the physical expression of community life results from a multitude of social and community functions; that political methods and processes are the channels through which the community expresses itself in its institutions and in its physical aspects.

If we could demonstrate to the student that his ideal of liberty, when expressed in terms of community life, means a subordination of self-interest; that it is alone through the acceptance of such an idea that he who lives in a community can actually possess in the concrete that liberty which he assumes the Constitution to give him; if we can give up a sufficient number of our theorems and our formulas to find time for such things, then we shall have established the solid foundation upon which city planning must stand if it is to be other than an empty phrase. Why not teach, by illustrated lectures in our universities, the subject of town planning? Why not relate the student's abstract notions of life and the vague ideas he holds to things of actuality? Why not arouse his interest in the processes of government by relating them to the things of a physical nature which he can see and feel? Again would the beauty of the thing assume a new meaning, and art and architecture would become a vital thing related to life.

In the same way in our schools of architecture we have failed to relate the teaching to the forces of our day. We teach the resultant expression of past ideals and past cultures. By some method similar to those already suggested we must add to the training of the architect something

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which will force upon him the fact that it is not alone through his efforts that a modern architecture may be developed, but rather that he shall be the medium through which the forces shall be accurately expressed.

Our architectural schools have developed a splendid system of logical thought in regard to the subject of plan. All that is lacking is that it should be made more intimate to our present day conditions and we should force home to the architectural student the fact that our communities are primarily social rather than physical structures.

The training of the architect as it is now carried on has to do primarily with adequacy. Notwithstanding the criticisms directed at our schools, which criticisms result from the nature of the materials presented in our school exhibitions, there is clearly to be observed a very serious attempt, in the study of plan arrangement, to make form follow function in a logical way. Most of the time spent in study is devoted to the work of reasoning from a premise — the program — and the object of that reasoning is to find an adequate physical envelope for a set of stated conditions.

For us to assume that the school can evolve a new art, that it can bring about the evolution of new forms, or for us to further assume that it is the architect who can evolve for us a modern architecture is absurd. Architecture is not alone for the school, the university, the office or the studio; it is the resultant of endless varying impulses acting through those who design and those who fabricate.

I will say but a word regarding the function of the architect in the work of developing our cities. The work of the architect of today is complex indeed; the greater part of his effort centers about single problems, but the principles which he applies to their solution are subject to the broadest application. He is a coördinator of many things, and his constant study of bringing things into harmony and proper arrangement enables him to render a service in the field of city planning which no other individual is

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now trained to render. To him in many cases facts and figures are not necessary. A sort of intuitive judgment in the application of the principles of planning enables him to vision rather than to calculate the forms which will adequately express.

If the architect is to render the greatest possible service in the work of city planning, two things are of fundamental importance: he must assume the great responsibility imposed upon him by his training, his knowledge and his citizenship. It is also of equal importance that his ability and his fitness to perform certain functions be recognized and given a proper valuation. His point of view must be recognized in the development of the program and something of his visions must be included in the solution of the problem. As I view the situation from the standpoint of the architect, the object is to provide an adequate and a proper envelope for a set of reasonable conditions rather than to require of him, as we do now, that he attempt to render pleasing a set of conditions the very nature of which prohibits absolutely such a possibility.

It was but a few years ago that we recognized the serious state of affairs existing within our cities, and when we first endeavored to call them to the attention of the people, we turned for our inspiration to the cities of Europe. We were rather hasty in our choice of material by which we hoped to arouse an interest in the work of city planning, and we selected elements related to the esthetic side of city planning in the hope that these would awaken a general interest in the more serious side of the subject. Our first appeal was expressed in the advocacy of the "City Beautiful." In this we failed. The people had not developed to a point where such considerations seemed pertinent, nor did this phase appear to them to have anything whatever to do with their more fundamental ideals concerning living conditions. That the esthetic had a definite economic value in a community was not easily demonstrated, for the simple reason that the mind was working along other directions.

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A little later, however, when we had gone into the subject more deeply and when we approached the problem from the standpoint of social and economic values, considering such subjects as housing, sanitation, congestion, etc., there was a response. This response resulted not from the fact that the new proposition was more easily demonstrated, but rather from the fact that in our argument the people recognized that there was an intimate relation between our effort and their ideals of individual rights and liberty and adequate physical environment.

I recognize that I have offered little of a definite nature concerning the architectural side of city planning which may be applied with immediate results. I have not dwelt upon the specific contributions of the architect which affect, in a material way, the physical aspect of our cities. I do not ignore that phase of city planning because I deem it of secondary importance; I simply pass it by because I recognize that the time is not yet ripe for such a discussion. The ugliness, the inadequacy of our surroundings are not due to viciousness of character or commercialism, as so many would have it, but to plain ignorance—a chaotic condition of thought which has set up a false standard of values. Our battle—and it is a battle which we must wage—is not so much against a definite or an established order of things as it is against chaos. Chaos is our problem. To go on in an endeavor to express chaos more adequately is about as futile in developing a better civic architecture as is the attempt to sound a bell in a vacuum.

It is for this reason that I say that it is alone through the proper methods of education that we can hope in the future to realize our vision. We may struggle with the problems of the day, and through our effort we may slightly deflect the current of our chaotic progress. But we cannot hope that the generations which follow will find conditions much less chaotic, nor can we hope that they will find the task less difficult unless we follow the current of

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influence to the source and there establish an educational system which will develop such an interest in our physical environment that things will have an intimate relation to our lives.

When we shall have accomplished this, then it will be possible for those who think in terms wherein utility and beauty are related as cause and effect to use a language in which the symbols of expression will not only have a universal meaning, but will also be related to the impulses of our lives.

THE ARCHITECTURAL SIDE OF CITY PLANNING

ARTHUR A. STOUGHTON

Member American Institute of Architecture, Winnipeg, Man.

FOR the last few years we have been so industrious in telling city officials and commissions that city planning does not mean the city beautiful that we have almost persuaded ourselves that this is true. We have been so much concerned with street widths and angles of light and building laws and subsurface structures and areas of courts that the opportunity to discuss beautiful architectural accessories of city planning comes to me as an agreeable surprise. This country is making rapid progress toward fulfilling the scientific requirements of our trade because so much planning is being done in the light of so much highly organized study. It is relatively easy to fix the width of streets and not impossible to tell how far apart to put them in a given case; the books will tell how to orient them and anyone can make a round point or traffic place. There are more and more instances of good street planning in this country because more new districts are being laid out here than elsewhere and we have plenty of competent men to do it, but such good work, with all its merits and its scientific accuracy, leaves the man in the street cold. Only a city planner raves over a fine scheme on paper or made concrete only in walks and curbs and pavements, because he only can visualize its total effect in beauty which may never be fully realized. I have in mind a grand avenue recently constructed in upper New York, 250 feet wide, with all the potentiality of an Avenue des Champs-Élysées, which should have been lined with fine residences, but on which

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the high property values created justifies nothing short of tenement houses. It is the total effect in beauty which we are to consider briefly.

City planning, being so comprehensive, cannot consider its duty discharged until its street system is given its proper natural and architectural setting or background, is furnished with the necessary fixtures conceived in an artistic spirit and is enriched with objects of sentiment and beauty for the enjoyment of all, such as those the old-world peoples have always loved to place in their streets and open spaces. What would the streets of most European cities be, fine as their buildings are, lacking the fountains and statues and columns, the commemorative tablets and monuments, which speak in various language to the passer-by of patriotism and glory and history of science and art, of the things of the mind, of local pride, of aspirations and moral values, of humor and gayety, of religious faith and of life and death, running the gamut of the emotions, appealing to every sentiment and stirring thoughts in every cranny of the mind? We think of many towns only in terms of their ornamental features, which towns would be uninteresting and bare without them, like an unfurnished house. More than anything else, this furnishing of the streets with objects making a varied appeal — the gathered mementos of the past, the artistic heritage of local and race history and achievement — gives a place a personality and an intimate and hospitable character.

From earliest times it has been a most natural custom to decorate the highways and public places with memorials. Our minds run back to the avenues of sphinxes, the obelisks and the figures of men and animals, symbolizing the gods of Egypt. Among the Greeks and Romans the votive offerings, the religious figures, the effigies and war memorials and edicules of various kinds added greatly to the interest of the streets. The Romans were, par excellence, the decorators of the public place, their architecture supplying the finest setting possible in the noble colonnades and por-

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ticoes, tying all the separate features into a harmonious piece of decoration. The altars and rostra, the statues of emperors and gods, the columns and triumphal arches have each their part in the composition. The fine tradition was followed by the Italians of the Gothic period and of the Renaissance, whose spires and campanili and fountains added a different though no less decorative note. The enrichment of the street picture was not by any means peculiar to the sunny southern countries where the open air is natural, but northern places have held the same custom, and especially in modern times, with expanding resources, they have beautified the setting of their external life. In the smaller ones we have a fountain, a market cross, a wayside shrine, a figure of the local hero or the glorification of the signal event. In the larger ones we have an Arc de l'Etoile, a Fontaine de l'Observatoire, a Pont Alexandre III, an Albert Memorial, a Thames Embankment, a Scott Memorial, a Sièges Allée, a Kaiser William I Monument, a Washington Monument, a Grant Monument, and the like, of too many species to mention even the types.

In the logical development of a town come first the necessities — the fixtures for lighting, the standards for carrying wires and signboards, mail and fire boxes, the receptacles for waste, benches, shelters and waiting stations, drinking fountains for man and beast, kiosks for vending and advertising, public conveniences, entrances for subsurface structures, bridges and elevated structures. All of these utilities must, of course, be treated decoratively so as to be agreeable in form and to harmonize in scale and character with their surroundings. In many cases the original useful purpose is merged in the decorative, and certain of them, as fountains for instance, exist for the latter only. In the next class may be put such conveniences as ramps and steps, retaining walls, bridge approaches and water-side constructions generally, city gateways, park enclosures, towers for beacons or bells, clocks and sundials, bandstands and pavilions, which present an even more natural appeal

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for artistic treatment. Then there are all the resources of nature, the plantation of mass and surface, the green of the tapis vert with the glow of the parterre, and the sparkle and tinkle of water. Then come the purely ornamental features, in which art and sentiment join hands to add the highest touch of grace to the street picture, varying in a wide range between the boulder bearing an inscription and the triumphal arch or the many figured group. Finally, above all there is the embellishment by buildings, private or public, which line the streets or occupy open spaces and make or mar them. This phase of the subject is without the scope of this paper, but I may say that if buildings are to enter into the decorative scheme of the streets, they should at least be visible. It is sad to think how much of the possible effect of fine buildings is never realized on account of our long narrow streets and the rigid adherence to the rectangular block. For buildings as for monuments, a short vista gained by cutting off or turning a street or broadening it into a decorative place is necessary. I come from a place which glories in the possession of several fine avenues 132 feet wide, giving unusual opportunities for architectural effect. One of them is notable as being the longest street in the world. But although running nearly straight for 875 miles, it turns as it crosses another principal avenue and is faced on the latter by a fine building by McKim, Mead & White, which therefore has its full effect. Perhaps I should add in another category those embellishments for which former times give no precedent, which are the most obtrusive and insistent of all and from which the most enlightened society has so far been unable to protect itself — the advertisements. I will say only that the state which finds a remedy for this outrageous evil which renders nugatory all beauty in our streets deserves a reward equal to that of the man who conquers cancer or typhoid.

There are no rules for designing street features other than those applying to works of art in general. The book

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of suggestions is wide open and the aspect of foreign cities and towns. When we turn its pages we find an astonishing variety in the choice of motive, in treating and in placing. Every problem of treatment and adjustment has its own special conditions and its own best solution by which the object shall be related most agreeably to its purpose and sight and surroundings to give it individuality and distinction. To pass about the grand boulevards and along the great east-and-west axis of Paris — one of our most common mental promenades — gives a most complete exposition of the subject. We see the monument, isolated or adossed, the column and the obelisk, the architectural setting of sculpture, the group and the equestrian statue, the fountain and pool, the triumphal arch and the city gate, the decorative avenue leading up to a monument or building, open places of various sorts, the splendid building enhancing and being enhanced by its surroundings, the careful use of the green of nature, the color of flowers and the flow of water, the variety of effect of changing angles of view, the terraces and balustrades and ramps and bridges. Mr. Mawson has treated the subject so suggestively in his civic art that it would be traversing ground too well covered by him and too well known to you and for which the time fails to discuss details here.

Our cities will scarcely put on the garment of beauty and wear it with an air of ease and accustomedness until our people gain that real culture which shows itself in the appreciation of the fitness of things. Now, even in places where objects of art are set up, we often see glaring and ridiculous contrasts, like a man in full dress with tan shoes or with dirty hands. I have in mind an example of this where, in one of the most fashionably frequented city squares in America, opposite one of our proudest hotels, there is an island decorated with a bronze lamp, specially designed, provided by an art association. The man who operated a switch near by had made himself comfortable by installing against this lamp a dilapidated rocking chair

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which was kept in countenance by a battery of street cleaners' rubbish cans, brooms, etc., as a permanent furnishing of the spot.

But without this culture and love of beauty for its own sake, and basing our plea on a lower plane, we should accomplish something if we could convince the authorities of the money value of civic art. Just as many foreign products command a high price purely for the element of beauty of design in them, so a beautiful street or square or bridge or building or monument raises the value of real estate in the vicinity, while a city which as a whole is organized on attractive lines draws people and business and enterprises to itself; as its fame is carried far and wide by every chance visitor, and recoups itself directly and indirectly for the outlay many times over. Beauty as an asset convertible into real estate values and tax returns is recognized by most foreign cities, not yet sufficiently by ours. As soon as our people, who are rather fond of dollars, realize this they will, of course, hasten to invest in public art.

We of this country are fortunate in that few monuments have been inflicted upon our cities, and that other fixtures are not of a very permanent nature. Sculpture has developed as rapidly as architecture in the present generation, and we are now for the first time in a position to memorialize great deeds and events by monuments that future generations will not feel like removing to sequestered depths of the parks. Sunset Cox hailing a trolley car on Fourth Avenue, New York, will hardly have any replicas, to mention but one artless object set in high places. Despite the absence of art commissions in many places and of competent committees for the erection of memorials, much better work is being done by reason of the general elevation of intelligence which impels committees to seek expert advice in such matters, and because better talent is available. It is far better to leave our streets and parks bare of everything but the necessities for a long time than to fill them with meretricious ornaments, debasing rather than elevating

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taste, setting a low standard preëmpting good sites, as it is practically impossible to dislodge them on the score of bad art once they have dug themselves in. It is well to proceed slowly. All cities and towns, large or small, should be urged to appoint art commissions or at least to secure competent advisers for special occasions, and all such experts should be encouraged to do their whole duty in maintaining the highest standard in civic art.

The placing of works of art with us is especially difficult on account of the paucity of good sites furnished by the gridiron plan, unmitigated by studied modifications or accidental irregularities. Our street system reduces us to the necessity of placing our ornamental features, other than those in parks, against buildings or near them or along the edge of parks facing sidewalks, seen as we pass by, not as we approach along a vista. This may be well enough for small and minor objects, if we have enough of them to spare for inconspicuous places, but the wisdom of grouping these things, whether they be few or many, is generally conceded. For larger schemes and formal arrangements the city planner must create sites and provide vistas for the architect and sculptor and the gardener to use. When we see the marvelous impressiveness and dignity of the Place de la Concorde or the Kaiser Wilhelm Platz, the distinction each gives to a whole city, or the fine effect of many smaller squares which may be simply the widenings of the highway, artfully shaped and treated, it is strange that our new cities, while they are in the making, should not provide such advantages for the future. As traffic places or resting spots for pedestrians, or accents in a general effect, or opportunities for formal embellishment they would be invaluable.

Our planning, or our city growth without plan, has not taken into account the amenities of street life, the chance to pause in the mad rush to get a glimpse of nobler things than trolley cars; to get a new hold on common life by a suggestion of greatness from a monument or of grace from

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an object of art; to get the uplifting effect of a noble colonnade or tower seen at the end of a vista or to get a refreshment of mind from the greenness of ordered trees or sward. It has sought only to furnish the greatest number of rectangular blocks. It is time for a new idea to replace this one. The city planner and the monumentalist must coöperate in creating sites capable of a decorative setting and of furnishing them suitably, as time goes on, as places for the embodiment of the city's sentiments and ideals and taste and for the elevation and distinction of its life. Our inspiration is in the fountain of art; our copy-book is the achievements of the past; our teacher the artistic instinct of the ages.

THE ARCHITECTURAL SIDE OF CITY PLANNING

GEORGE B. FORD

Chairman, Town Planning Committee of the American Institute of Architects

THE World's Fair in Chicago in 1893 was an object lesson to all who saw it of the wonderful possibilities of architectural grouping and setting. So deep was the impression that many on returning to their homes began wondering whether something of the same effect might not be secured in their own local public buildings. From this started the movement for "Civic Centers" which has been bearing fruit in so many of our cities. It is this movement that has given voice to the slogan, "The City Beautiful." As this work progressed people began to think, and the more broadly they thought about the development of their cities the more they came to feel that the "City Beautiful" alone was only a small part of the matter; that rather the construction of all phases of the physical city should be considered as a unit; that the city should be so planned that its work and its play, that city living should be as safe, healthful, convenient and agreeable as proper planning could make it. Then a peculiar thing happened. The social and economic interest in city planning became so strong that the pendulum swung to the opposite extreme and soon almost no one dared mention the term "City Beautiful." People almost lost sight of the architectural side of city planning. They failed to appreciate that what is economically and socially good may be esthetically shocking; that the offense to the senses may more than outweigh the gain in well-being.

Now the citizens are waking up to the fact that once a

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plan is satisfactory from the standpoint of business efficiency and social welfare, it need cost little if any more to make it pleasing to the eye as well. Many are feeling that oftentimes it is worth while to sacrifice a little of the other elements in order to gain in beauty. The pendulum is swinging back to the normal. Comprehensive, all-round city planning is arriving.

Beauty is not something that is just applied after the plans are worked out. Beauty is more than skin deep. It must go back to the inception of the plan. At all stages beauty should be considered as well as utility. We can all understand utility, but while most of us appreciate beauty when we see it, few of us can analyze a pleasing effect and tell wherein its charm really lies. Architecture, or better civic design, as it is often called when speaking of civic architecture, is generally considered a rather mysterious subject, a subject to be left for its creation to the initiated few. The existence of such a feeling is most unfortunate. The sooner that illusion can be cleared away and the principles underlying good civic design are generally understood, the more insistent and general, and therefore the more effective, will become a popular demand for seemliness in our cities. To this end we will try to present the major principles of civic design, illustrating them from well-known examples. From the first we find that the only difference between architecture and civic design is one of degree and application. In both cases the eye is satisfied by the use of good taste in mass, proportion, placing of ornament, scale, appropriateness and the handling of color and materials. These are the same phases of design that run through all art, from the study of the setting for a jewel to the laying out of a great World's Fair group. For each kind of work the principles have their different technical application, but they themselves remain the same.

For example, the Union Station in Washington is very good in mass; the North Station in Boston is very bad. In the Washington station the great central portion with its

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three great arches, the lower side wings with their lower arches and columns and the great approach all hang together in perfect unity. In the Boston station, however, the opposite is true. No two parts of the façade hang together. The total effect is chaos. The mass is bad.

Again, why is it that everyone is charmed by that perfect architectural gem, the New York City Hall, and at the same time is left cold by the Post Office Building in front of it and by the Old Court House behind it? The City Hall could hardly be improved on in its proportions, while the proportions of the various motifs in the Court House and Post Office are crude and unprepossessing. Good proportions in the design of any civic structure mean that the eye will be satisfied and the prospect remembered with pleasure.

The placing and distribution of details, their amount and kind are all important. The Pan-American Union Building in Washington is very happy in the disposition of details on its façade and in the arrangement of architectural features in its setting, such as the terraces, balustrades, steps, pedestals, etc. The same is true of the placing of architectural and sculptural features in the approach to the library of Columbia University. A splendid opportunity for good civic decoration can be wasted by the erection of a monument so unhappy in the spotting of its details as that in the "Square" at Cleveland, Ohio.

Scale is a highly technical matter and very hard to sense. A building or any civic structure is in scale when a man standing just in front of it appears to be man-size in relation to the structure. Most of the Gothic cathedrals of Europe are in excellent scale, but when you see a man in St. Peter's in Rome he appears like a pygmy. The building is too large in scale. All of the motifs and decorations are exaggerated to the verge of clumsiness. If the scale is too small, a structure is apt to appear trivial. If the scale is too large, it tends to become oppressive.

The appropriateness of the design of a structure to its

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function is a matter on which everyone has his own views. Many question whether the heavy classic architectural treatment of the Pennsylvania Station in New York is peculiarly suited to the needs of the great modern terminal. There is a distinct demand for a monumental treatment in order to make it a worthy entrance to a great city, but it is a debatable point whether a more open treatment would not have given a greater sense of the movement of a city's crowds. On the other hand the modern factory building with its walls of glass, its construction strongly marked, its elimination of all superfluous features is the acme of appropriateness. Such crudeness of suitability to use would rarely do in civic structures, for these must represent all the dignity of the city government. A certain sacrifice of the useful to the monumental becomes part of appropriateness in civic design.

Attention to the possibilities of texture of surface and of materials is something that we have not carried as far in America as they have in Europe. We have become used to the red pressed brick façade with its rock faced granite trimmings and its painted iron cornice. Yet what a far cry from that to the beautiful texture and use of material in the Morgan Library in New York, in the Wisconsin State Capitol or in some of the recent suburban stations about New York, as in Yonkers, White Plains and along the West Chester and Boston Road. For the same cost, good taste in the use of material and in the texture of surfaces can make a great difference in the appearance of a structure.

The recent use of color in architecture in our expositions, particularly in the wonderful color effects which are now to be seen at San Francisco, has opened our eyes to new possibilities in this field. We are afraid of color, especially in our civic architecture. We excuse ourselves by saying that it is undignified. The real reason is that we do not trust ourselves to use it. But in view of the present ease and cheapness with which colored terra cotta and colored

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cement can be made, I believe that our cities are not bound to remain much longer somber, drab and monotonous. The possibilities of the use of color are limitless and I prophesy an early demand to have our cities brightened up.

In analyzing the principles of civic design, most of the examples I have used are architectural because so few good examples of civic design as such are available. The same principles apply, however, in both cases; the same reasons exist in both cases for applying them.

It is charm of appearance that makes us proud of our city. It is that which should justify us in spreading the tale, wherever we travel, of what a wonderful city it is. It is beauty of prospect and of buildings that first catches the stranger's eye and suggests to him the thought that it might be well to come and take up his lot with us. It is only after such a first impression that he begins to think seriously about the practical things that make up a city plan. We must have beauty too. The full expression of the best that is within us demands it.

Mr. Ford's remarks were illustrated by the following slides:

City gates, ancient arches: Paris, Porte St. Denis; Nancy, Place Stanislas. City gates, modern stations: New York, Pennsylvania Station; New York, Grand Central Station. City gates, water quays: Algiers, quay; Budapest, quay; Venice, quay; Hamburg, Alster Basin; Paris, quay; Vienna, canal portal; Chicago, river. City gates, water bridges: Bolton Bridge; Spuyten Duyvil, N. Y., bridge design disapproved; Spuyten Duyvil, N. Y., bridge design approved; Paris, Alexander III Bridge. Streets, within borders transit: overhead wires; London, Strand, Isle of Safety; Edinburgh, Princes Street, poles; Vienna, Opera Ring, lighting standards. Streets, within borders transit: subway entrances; Paris, Elevated; Berlin, Elevated. Streets, borders, building effects: Innsbruck, window boxes; Charlottenburg, party wall; Düsseldorf, Tietz store.

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Streets, borders, formal setting: Paris, Rue de Rivoli; Paris, Champs-Élysées; Paris, Avenue de l'Opéra. Streets, borders, informal setting: Antwerp, looking toward cathedral; Oxford, High Street; Rothenburg, view; Rothenburg, plan. Street planning, residential grouping: Cologne, plan; Hellerau, view; Hampstead Garden, suburb plan; Hampstead Garden, suburb view of residence square; Hampstead Garden, suburb view of residence street; Hampstead Garden, suburb view of business street; Port Sunlight, view of Social Hall. Social and recreational grouping: West Orange, N. J., playground; model playground with school; Philadelphia, play center; St. Louis, social and civic center. Civic grouping, civic centers, plazas: Forest Hills Gardens, L. I., station plaza; Springfield, Mass., civic center; Denver, Col., civic center; Cleveland, Ohio, civic center, view toward Post Office; Brooklyn Plaza; Philadelphia parkway, art center, view toward City Hall; Paris, Place de la Concorde; Rome, ancient forum; Rome, Vittorio Emanuele Monument; Vienna, Ring Strasse, first plan; Vienna, Ring Strasse, present plan. General monumental city planning: Canberra, Australia, plan; Washington, modified L'Enfant plan; Washington, bird's-eye view, east; Washington, bird's-eye view west.

THE CONSTITUTION AND POWERS OF A CITY PLANNING AUTHORITY

ROBERT H. WHITTEN

*Secretary, City Planning Committee of Board of Estimate and Appointment,
New York City*

At the last meeting of the National Conference on City Planning the executive committee appointed a Committee on Administrative Procedure, with Mr. Nelson P. Lewis as chairman. The committee decided to take up the general question of the constitution and powers of a city planning authority, and in order to secure a wide basis of experience for its work it caused a questionnaire to be prepared and sent out widely to individuals and city planning commissions. Eighty replies were received which show very careful consideration of the subject, and although it will be impossible even to abstract them, I think it will be important before opening the discussion to give a summary statement of the questions and of the replies.¹

City planning involves (1) the creation, adoption and revision of a tentative comprehensive plan for the physical development of the city, and (2) the correlation of particular improvements, by whatever authority originated, with the requirements of the comprehensive plan. The comprehensive tentative plan should include at least the following: streets; parks, playgrounds; transit; grouping of public buildings; railroads, waterways; terminals; markets and the districting of the city for the purpose of regulating the height, area and use of buildings.

The creation of a comprehensive tentative plan involves first of all a careful study of future growth and require-

¹ See Appendix, pages 274-299.

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ments. In order to plan for the present and for the future, a picture is needed of what the city will or should look like in 25, 50 or 100 years, when it has several times its present population. For this purpose studies are required of the probable growth and distribution of population and of the probable development of business and industry. The probable order of development is also important. We need not only to know what areas will eventually be needed, for example, for port development and for park purposes, but also the probable order in which the various available areas will be developed.

A comprehensive tentative plan having been worked out and tentatively adopted, the next step is to secure the correlation of particular improvements, by whatever authority originated, with the requirements of the comprehensive plan. As this comprehensive plan touches so many phases of municipal activity, an efficient administrative organization to secure the desired correlation is a most difficult problem.

Provision must also be made for the revision of the tentative comprehensive plan. No amount of planning can avoid the necessity for a considerable amount of reconstruction and change. When invention and discovery are changing the methods of work and of living throughout the world, it is idle to think that we can so judge the future that our present plans for the city's development will not require change and modification. The "once for all" method of city planning is therefore impracticable. We cannot adopt a plan and make that the Procrustean mold for all future time. City planning, to be effectual, must be sustained and continuous.

The creation, adoption, application, development and revision of the comprehensive tentative plan constitutes an imposing program. It takes considerable imagination and optimism to hope that it will ever be completely realized in any city. A few cities have adopted and carried out comprehensive plans for particular functions, but using the

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term "comprehensive plan" in the broad sense above indicated, no city has worked out, adopted and provided effectively for the continuous application, development and revision of such a plan. In a large city this constitutes a complex and difficult problem and the proper administrative organization to grapple effectively with it may not be such a simple matter as is sometimes assumed.

In American state and city government almost every expansion of governmental activity is initiated through the instrumentality of a new commission. There is a fear of intrusting the working out of new functions to existing officials. Existing officials are already loaded with work and it is thought that they will have neither the time, the inclination nor perhaps the ability to develop the new idea. A new commission, composed usually of unpaid members, is used to plant and care for the new undertaking, at least during its development period. Often the new function fails to take root as a permanent institution and the commission dies. If, on the other hand, the new function becomes a recognized governmental function, it is sooner or later merged with the general governmental organization. The new function is transferred to the appropriate official or department and the commission disappears. That is inevitable; otherwise municipal government would soon become an utterly disorganized tangle of boards and commissions.

The city planning movement will doubtless be no exception to the rule. Doubtless the commission method will be used largely in the earlier stages of the movement, but if the city planning movement endures, it will ultimately be made a part of the general governmental organization. The city plan is so vitally connected with every phase of municipal activity that it must be worked out in as close touch as is possible with the existing administrative and legislative authorities.

All this goes to show that it is difficult to dogmatize concerning the constitution and powers of a city planning

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authority. The organization essential for the initiation of the movement may be very different from the logical ultimate organization. The appropriate initial organization may vary in different cities with the size of the city, the popular support forthcoming and the fitness of existing officials for the development of this new function. We are, of course, interested primarily in the result and not in the machinery used. The most effective agencies at hand should be availed of to start real city planning.

The typical city plan commission in America is made up of a number of citizens who are not city officials and who serve without pay. A commission thus organized has certain advantages in the initiation of any new function. Appointed solely for city planning purposes, the commission will devote itself unreservedly to that work. It will take a broad view of the scope of city planning. It will realize that it needs the assistance of city plan experts. It will not be deterred by details and difficulties that loom large in the vision of the practical city administrator. It will have something of the missionary spirit in propagating the gospel of city planning. All this presupposes that the commission is given adequate appropriation. A commission with the best intentions in the world will fail utterly unless its work and plans are founded on careful investigation, and careful investigation usually costs money.

A citizen commission of this kind has serious drawbacks when it comes to the official adoption and carrying out of a comprehensive plan. In the first place it is difficult to see how a commission thus constituted can be given anything more than advisory powers, i.e., of investigation and report. The city plan affects so continuously, vitally and broadly the administration of the city government that it does not seem consistent with good administration to delegate such far-reaching power to an appointive committee of citizens. Moreover, a number of the city's departments and officials are necessarily at work planning the city's

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physical development in so far as particular functions are concerned. Any comprehensive plan will lose much in practical efficiency and result in much duplication of effort unless worked out in close touch with these departments and officials.

All this is so important that in creating a city plan authority in any city, instead of turning at once to the citizens' commission plan, the ground should be very thoroughly gone over to see to what extent existing official agencies can be effectively used. Only in case this search for appropriate official material is unsuccessful should the alternative of a commission made up entirely of non-official members be availed of, and then only as a temporary expedient. It will usually be best to make up the commission partly of official and partly of non-official members.

The ultimate development in any large city may well be a city plan office that will have primary control of the development and administration, but not of the adoption or confirmation of the city plan. This city plan office may be an executive department in one city and a bureau of the board of estimate or other governing commission in another city. The city plan office may have associated with it an advisory commission of citizens or of citizens and officials. The city plan office will develop the data required for comprehensive planning, will create a plan showing the future physical development of the city and will submit to the regularly constituted governing authorities of the city such parts of the plan as seem desirable for adoption and confirmation as the tentative official plan of the city. All matters affecting the city plan will be referred to the city plan office for investigation and report before being acted upon by the general governing authority. The city plan office will make recommendations for the continuous development and revision of the tentative official plan.

Except in the smaller cities the function of an art jury or commission should not be combined with those of the city planning authority. The best art judgment will be

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secured by the selection of a group of art experts. City planning is a very different problem and requires different men and methods.

The organization of a city plan authority should be within the powers of every city, but its creation should be permissive and not mandatory. Moreover, the composition and powers of the city plan authority should not be delimited by state statute except in the most general terms. The city should have the utmost freedom to enact, amend or abolish its city planning organization. This freedom of action and centralization of responsibility is even more essential to efficient city government than is city planning itself.

The power to confirm tentative plans submitted by the city planning authority should be vested in the regularly constituted governing authority of the city. The city plan authority should, however, be granted the opportunity to consider and report upon every matter affecting the integrity of the city plan, and action contrary to its recommendation should require a two-thirds vote of the governing authority.

The formal confirmation of a tentative comprehensive plan will come slowly. It will probably be inexpedient to ask for an official confirmation of any but the most essential parts of the comprehensive plan developed by the city plan office. The city plan office, in formulating its picture of the future city, will consider many facts and factors that will necessarily have an important bearing upon its comprehensive plan and which may be tentatively included in the plan, but which it would be unnecessary and inexpedient to submit for official confirmation. The working out of a comprehensive system of main thoroughfares is naturally one of the first tasks of the city plan office. This is a matter, however, which, as in the case of most city planning matters, cannot be considered separately. Transit, rail and water terminals, markets, parks, building districts and other matters must be considered before even a tenta-

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tive system of main thoroughfares can be laid out. This does not mean that the transit system, parks and terminals shall first be laid out in detail, but merely that the system of thoroughfares shall be designed to provide adequately and economically for future transit, shall fit in with the most probable development of rail and water terminals and provide proper approaches and connections for the park system. Having studied the thoroughfare system in connection with provision for transit and other factors, it will probably be advisable to submit the thoroughfare plan for confirmation as a tentative or even final plan, even though the transit, terminal and other parts of the comprehensive plan have not been sufficiently studied and elaborated to warrant their official confirmation.

The city plan office should realize at the start that its one big job is the development of the comprehensive plan, that it will not usually be in a position to make a unique contribution to the solution of particular problems until it has this comprehensive picture of the future city. It should therefore guard against frittering its time away on numberless apparently urgent and immediate problems and thus lose the opportunity of ever becoming the real controlling force in shaping the future city. This does not mean that the city plan office may not with propriety advise in regard to questions where its preliminary studies show that failure to act would imperil the probable future plan.

The city plan office should have complete and direct control of the creation and administration of certain parts of the comprehensive plan, and as to other parts of the plan should act chiefly as the correlating factor. The matters over which it will have practically exclusive control will vary greatly in different cities. In many cities the city plan office may be given practically exclusive control over the general street layout. To better enforce such control no plat of a suburban development should be received for record until it shall have been approved as to its street system by the city plan office. Moreover, no public

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moneys should be expended for improvements of any kind in any street that does not conform with the city plan or, if no final map has been adopted for that section of the city, no public improvements should be made in a street that has not been approved by the city plan office.

The question of compensation for buildings erected within the lines of a mapped street subsequent to the confirmation of a final map for such street presents serious difficulties. Frequently the lines of an approved street cut into an individual holding in such a way as to render it impossible of improvement without violating the proposed street lines. In exceptional cases a man would thus be deprived of the use of his property for an indefinite period if a rule were adopted denying him compensation for improvements made within the lines of the proposed street. Perhaps some plan could be worked out by which compensation for buildings would be denied unless previous notice of intention to build had been given and the city allowed a period of three months within which to purchase the property in question.

Any adequate solution of the problem of securing adherence to a plan once adopted can scarcely be attained without the application of powers and procedure similar to those contained in the English Town Planning Act. This is particularly well adapted to the laying of large suburban tracts considerably in advance of the time when they will become ripe for improvement. Such areas, chiefly in large holdings, are doubtless greatly benefited by the application of a comprehensive plan of streets, open spaces and building control. The owners can well afford to pay the costs of a careful plan and to give up a certain degree of individual freedom in order to secure the undoubted advantages of uniform development. Of course the confirmation of such a plan would involve payment of compensation in excess of assessed benefits in the case of a few owners. We have no state department at all corresponding to the Local Government Board of Great Britain, but the supervision of such an authority is not deemed essential to the success

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of the undertaking. The administration of such authority might well be left to the city plan office, subject to the supervision of the established courts in certain matters.

The problem of intermunicipal planning and of planning adjacent areas that will sometime become an integral part of an existing urban center presents many difficulties. In some cases it may be possible to secure some union of adjacent local authorities to form a metropolitan district for the purposes of city planning. In other cases a state supervisory authority of some kind would probably be essential to the working out and enforcement of a plan for the entire urban area.

A state municipal department, with powers somewhat similar to those of the Local Government Board of Great Britain, might be helpful to cities and towns in many ways. It could be granted a certain measure of control over local accounts and finances and could give expert aid and advice to the smaller cities on many subjects, including city planning. There is, moreover, a broad field for state planning that might be taken up by a state municipal department, or perhaps more appropriately by a state conservation department. This department would adopt a tentative comprehensive plan of state development, highways, railroads, waterways, forests, state parks, water supply and all intermunicipal problems of physical development.

SOME ASPECTS OF CITY PLANNING ADMINISTRATION IN EUROPE

FRANK B. WILLIAMS, Esq.

New York City

THE average citizen is a pragmatist. To him the only real test of a principle is whether it works or not. Logically, no doubt, this is not always a fair test. The principle may be correct, the means of applying it faulty. The average citizen will have none of such fine-spun distinctions. To get his vote you must "show him," and the only way to accomplish it is to "do the job." Thus administration, important in all practical affairs, is especially so in matters, like city planning, where political support is necessary and success is dependent upon votes. If city planning in any community, badly administered, proves a failure, it will be a long time before that community, whatever the new machinery of administration proposed, will give it a new trial.

To us in this country the study of foreign methods of city planning is especially important, both because city planning is much newer here than in Europe and administrative methods are of slow growth and because political administration is one of the things in which we have been least successful. That we shall anywhere find methods of city planning ready made, which we can with advantage adopt, is not probable. Administrative methods are in no small measure dependent for their success on local conditions and the institutions of which they form a part. The study of foreign institutions may indeed bring home to us the necessity and even suggest the substance of amendments to our own; but in a country like ours, where city planning

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legislation is still too recent to be judged by its results, the chief value, perhaps, of such a study is the basis which it gives us for passing at least a provisional judgment on our methods, their aims and the tendency to fulfill these aims.

City planning is a science. In its application to different localities it varies greatly, but everywhere the same principles hold true, everywhere the main aim of city planning is the same.

The main purpose of city planning is to bring about a unity in the construction of the given community. Community life is a network of interests, each seeking its expression in the physical development of the community. It is the lesson of city planning that these interests, for their common good, must be harmonized and that this harmony is attained only in the unity of the community of which each is but a part. City planning administration is successful in proportion as it attains such a unity.

What then are the means we employ here in the United States to reach this end? After the at once scholarly and practical paper of Dr. Whitten, to which you have just listened, it is not my purpose to enter into a discussion of the city planning institutions of this country. All I shall attempt to do, in the limited space at my disposal, is to give such an outline of the typical governmental machinery used for that purpose by us as will aid us in our comparison of foreign city planning institutions with our own. In all countries, and especially in a democracy like ours, institutions in different localities vary. Yet here as elsewhere there are generally institutions in each line of governmental activity which, by their prevalence or growing popularity, may fairly be said to be the prevailing ones. And so it is with city planning in the United States. That institution is the local planning commission, specially created to make plans for that locality and, perhaps, its immediate surroundings, which shall include and harmonize

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all the many factors of physical development of the community. Thus the plan embraces not alone the street system, but the parks and other open spaces; the building regulations, if any, including zoning or districting; the sites for public buildings; the transportation systems, both local and long distance, with their freight and passenger terminals; the public utilities, such as gas and water, and their location, etc. Manifestly the commission cannot be given full power to execute such an all inclusive plan. If it were, the control over all public works and the regulation of many private activities would be divided between the commission and the regular city authorities, to the confusion and destruction of all proper government. And yet to narrow the scope of the plan is to destroy its comprehensiveness and the unity of development which it is the purpose of the commission to create. Usually therefore — and this is the growing tendency — the commission has only advisory power. Its task is to urge the regular authorities to adopt the plan and develop the community along the lines planned; its duty is by its influence to prevent construction by the community authorities on lines that will interfere with the ultimate execution of the plan in whole or in detail.

In its task of seeing that the plan is carried out, both the commission and the regular authorities are hampered by the fact that, except by actually taking the land necessary for its public features, such as streets, parks and sites for public buildings, there is no method in this country of preventing private interests from infringing upon the plan and often rendering its future execution, in whole or in part, practically impossible. Wise planning anticipates present needs, in order that present construction may conform to and aid proper future development. Wise planning covers the whole city, in order that it may be constructed as a unit. Present construction executes only such parts of the plan as immediate need demands and financial ability permits. Even the acquisition to any extent of the land

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needed in the future seems difficult and often impossible. Thus the plan is a pattern to be filled in from time to time, and unless at the outset there is some method of making a general adherence to the entire plan binding upon land-owners, it is likely to fail, in material respects, of realization. The records of the planning departments of many of our cities show how often private improvements have compelled the city to modify or abandon important features of their official plans. But our courts, after some vacillation, have held, everywhere where the question has arisen except in Pennsylvania, that the imposing of a plan upon the land of a private owner without compensation to him deprives him illegally of property rights.¹

Thus we in the United States, as a rule, seek to obtain unity in our city construction by concentrating all city planning power in a local city planning body specially constituted for the purpose. To what extent is this good? To what extent does it tend to bring about the desired results? Unfortunately, with city planning legislation dating, in this country, only from 1907, it is impossible to answer this question by reference to results. It is therefore all the more important for us to consult foreign experience. By what machinery do they seek unity in the construction of their communities? In the light of their methods and results is it probable that we can best attain our ends by the methods at present in vogue here? What additions or changes of method, if any, should we adopt?

Among the nations of Europe, in recent times, the longest and greatest measure of success in city planning has probably been attained by Germany. Germany is a federation in which city planning is largely within the jurisdiction of the various states. We thus have there a variety of experience to draw upon. Of all modern nations she has excelled in political administration. Her bitterest critics freely admit the effectiveness, in every field, of her wonderful organization. Thus for many reasons Ger-

¹ Lewis, "Eminent Domain," 3d ed. (1909), sec. 226 and cases cited.

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many's city planning institutions and their results are a study of value to us.

Preëminent in city planning as in most matters, although by no means always in the lead, stands the state of greatest power and prestige — Prussia. Her city planning act of 1875,¹ preceded, however, by the Italian act of 1865 and the Swedish act of 1874, along somewhat the same lines, is an important step in the history of city planning legislation — an importance much increased by the wealth of experience Prussia has had under the act and the influence of the act in other German states and to some extent in other countries.

The central feature of the Prussian act is the method and purpose under it of fixing the lines of the streets. Prior to 1875 these lines were established from time to time as immediate occasion arose by the state police, for police considerations, such as safety, and the immediate demands of traffic, rather than, as a rule, in accordance with any general plan. The act of 1875 authorizes the establishing of a general street or, as the act expresses it, "building" plan. In the fixing of street lines regard must be paid to considerations of traffic, safety from fire, public health and safety from disfigurement of the public streets and squares, not only for the immediate present, but for the future. The street lines are now to be fixed by the local authorities. From the time of establishment of the street lines the authorities may forbid building within them. No payment is made the landowner for the establishment of the plan, although of course he is compensated when his land is actually taken.

It will probably be admitted by city planners generally that, subsequent to 1875, city planning has been more general and more successful in Prussia than in any state out-

¹ "Gesetz betreffend die Anlegung und Veraenderung von Strassen und Plaetzen in Staedten und laendlichen Ortschaften, vom 2 Juli, 1875," popularly called the "Baufuchtliniengesetz," to be found in the "Preussische Gesetzsammlung" for 1875, p. 561.

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side of Germany. It is therefore of interest to us to observe that unity in community construction has not been attained there by constituting a special city planning body for the given community, to whom all city planning power is given; that there is no official map, required or recognized by law, that attempts to include all the factors of community development and that it is not even true that all city planning authority is in the hands of one official or body in the given community.

The Prussian act of 1875 gives the city authorities themselves the power to establish their own "general street building" plan¹ and makes it binding upon landowners. That plan is merely a street plan. It does not, in any way binding upon property owners, include parks or sites for public buildings. To be sure of them these same local authorities must actually buy the land at private sale, which they may do without proof of need for any specific public purpose. Railroads, their extensive stations and terminals are no part of the official plan of the city; they are wholly within the jurisdiction of imperial or state officials. Vitally as building regulations, which prescribe the materials and methods of construction and fix the bulk and use of buildings and the location of residential and industrial buildings according to districts or zones, are related to the location and character of streets, even building regulations in Prussia are not a part of the official city plan or issued by the local authorities who establish that plan, but by the state building police.

A greater unity of authority in city planning is attained in many of the states outside Prussia. The complaint is bitter in Prussia that the local authorities cannot issue the building ordinances, and the example of Saxony and most

¹ The plan is usually prepared, as are all matters, by the upper branch, or administrative board (Magistrat) of the city assembly, for the consideration of the lower branch, or council; the actual work being done by an administrative department (often what corresponds to our street department) under the supervision of a committee of the administrative board.

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of the South German states is cited, where building regulations are either expressly recognized as an integral part of the official or general street building plan of the city or issued by the same local authorities.¹ Nowhere in Germany, however, is there a planning body specially constituted for cities or other localities with power to include all factors of community development in their plan;² nowhere is all city planning power placed in the hands of any one authority; nowhere is an official plan provided for which shall contain all the factors of city construction and development.

How then is that unity, so clearly seen in the construction of German cities, obtained? By the knitting together of all government, local, state and even national. The regulation of manufacturing, which is at the basis of the creation of industrial districts throughout Germany, is imperial, but that regulation is in part a permission to the states to regulate in certain respects and by given methods.³ The states usually impose the duty of this regulation upon local officials, who act, so far as this duty is concerned, as state agents. It is the usual practice in Ger-

¹ The building regulations are recognized as a part of the street building plan in Saxony ("Allgemeines Baugesetz vom 1 Juli, 1900," sec. 16) and to some extent in Württemberg ("Bauordnung vom 28 Juli, 1910," art. 11). In Württemberg the general law, just cited, makes certain building regulations, which local ordinances may vary (see art. 39, 56, 59, 94), and the law is similar in Baden ("Landesbauordnung vom 1 Sept., 1907," sec. 2, 109). In Bavaria the building regulations, so far as they are not prescribed by general law or local ordinance, are fixed at the same time that the building line is determined ("Bauordnung vom 17 Feb. 1901-3 Aug. 1910," sec. 2, 3). In Saxony the general law lays down building regulations which are in force only if the local authorities do not pass such regulations by ordinance ("Baugesetz," already cited, sec. 90 ff.).

² The nearest approach in Germany, of which I have knowledge, to the American local planning commission is the Munich Local-baukommission, whose sole duties are with relation to the street building plan, the building ordinances and a few minor matters — by no means the whole field of city planning.

³ "Gewerbeordnung fuer das deutsche Reich, vom 21 Juni, 1869," to be found in the "Bundes Gesetzblatt des norddeutschen Bundes" for that year, p. 245.

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many to assign state duties not to officials exclusively in state employ, but to local functionaries. The authority of the state over its agent is nevertheless preserved. The local official, as a state officer, must follow the instructions of his state superiors; appeals from his acts lie to state authorities, who maintain the policies of the state. For instance, the state building police, who in Prussia issue the building and districting regulations, are, it is true, in a few of the largest cities, like Berlin, solely state officials; but in most of her cities these duties are intrusted to the burgomeister, or mayor, or to the upper administrative board of the city — both local authorities; and whether solely state officers or local officials as well, they execute the will of the state, carry out her policies and obey her superior and supreme officials and rulers. Nevertheless harmony between state and local provisions cannot but be promoted by the use of the same officials for promulgating both.

Where there is not this use of the same person or body as the agent of different authorities, there are often provisions for notice to the various authorities concerned and consultation between them. For instance, in Saxony the building police (state officials) are charged with the duty of examining the general street building or official city plan fixed by the local authorities and seeing that all the public authorities affected are notified and the necessary changes made in the plans to guard their interests.¹ Among these authorities are the military, forest, railroad, state highway, officials, all state authorities; the church and school authorities, local officials; and the authorities of neighboring communities, who must as well be consulted.

It should also be remembered that local self-government does not mean quite the same thing in Germany that it does with us. While the field of that government is broader there than here, the extent of it is limited by appeals from local action to state authorities, by state inspection of the

¹ "Baugesetz," cited above, sec. 21.

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acts of local authorities and by the necessity for the ratification in many cases of local action by state officials. In street planning, which very generally is done by local bodies, as in the matter of building regulations, which in many states is, in greater or less degree, also a local matter, the final authority throughout Germany is the Minister of the Interior or some similar minister of the ruler. In Prussia, it is true, the "street building" plan does not need his ratification, but appeals from those who feel themselves aggrieved by that plan go to him or his subordinates. In most German states outside Prussia the "building street" plan must have his approval, and, generally, he may give or withhold it on any ground he sees fit, including the ground that the plans are not for the general welfare or suited to the community in question, or that the rights of other authorities or communities are not sufficiently considered. Thus this common state authority, to whom all may appeal, tends to unify and harmonize all interests.

Eminent as Germany is in city planning, she by no means stands alone among European nations. It was Italy which was the first to pass city planning legislation along modern lines under her act of June 25, 1865, entitled "The Law of Expropriation for Purposes of Public Utility." Plans are divided into regulation plans, as they are called, for the built-up portions of towns, and extension plans, for their newer parts. Both these plans, however, may be united into one common plan for the entire community. The responsibility for the drawing up of the plan rests upon the mayor of the commune. It is his duty to present the plan to the counsel of the commune for adoption, after which, to be in force, it must be ratified by the king. The commune now has at once the right to take the necessary land by condemnation. The plan is binding upon all land-owners affected by it for twenty-five years, and this period may be extended by royal decree. No person who makes any improvement interfering with the plan for the purpose of making a profit is entitled to any compensation. Any

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improvement made after the plan is made public is regarded as made for profit and is not paid for by the commune when it takes the land on which the improvement was made. One-half of the increase of value of any land due to the plan must be paid the commune. It has been found that this increase, on the average, about pays for the construction of streets and similar features of the plan. Thus it will be seen that Italy anticipated by ten years some of the most important features of the Prussian act of 1875.

In 1909 England passed her first act professedly dealing with city or town planning.¹ All the planning powers under the act are given to the authority of the locality, subject to the supervision and control of the Local Government Board of the central government. These powers are extensive. Even acts of Parliament may be superseded by the "scheme" which these local authorities enforce. The plan which they make binds private landowners. But the law selects for planning "land which is in course of development or appears likely to be used for building purposes." In other words the act deals, practically, with undeveloped areas, only, in or near cities and towns. It does not attempt to plan cities as a whole. Admirable and full of lessons for us in many respects as this act is, it does not furnish us with a basis of comparison with our own planning, which treats cities as organic wholes. English city planners recognize the defects of their act, and before the war began there was a good prospect of its speedy amendment in some way so that plans should cover entire communities.

What then is the lesson of European experience in city planning administration for us? First, as it seems to me, that some method of making certain features of the city plan binding on private property owners is essential. This is fundamental in city planning legislation in Italy, throughout Germany and in England. Even in England, however, where only the undeveloped part of towns and

¹ 9 Edward 7, chap. 44.

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cities is planned in any binding sense, no attempt is made to include all these features, and in Germany only the street system — including, in most cases, building and districting regulations — is so planned. Even with these limitations the freer and more democratic of the German states have felt it necessary to protect the landowner from injustice by specifying when he has the right to demand that the community shall at once take and pay for his land, subjected to the city's plan.¹ This is perhaps an indication of the care we must take, and perhaps of the methods of taking care, that our own legislation giving binding force to certain features of the city plan may be constitutional and just.

There remains the most important question: Does German experience tend to show that our prevailing method of planning — the specially created local commission with the duty to include all factors of community development in its plan, but with only advisory power to secure its adoption — is unsound? In my opinion, no. Both German administration and ours have the same aim — unity in community construction. This aim we cannot attain — if indeed we altogether desire to do so — by the knitting together of all governmental institutions, as in Germany. Attain this city planning unity we must, but in our own way. The all inclusive plan of the American Planning Commission, if followed, in its main features, does give the desired unity. The planning commission can secure the adoption and execution of its plan by the city officials only by educating the public. This is good for the public and for city planning, for a cause can, in a democracy like ours, succeed only when it has intelligent public opinion back of it, and should ask for success on no other terms.

¹ A good illustration is furnished by a provision of law in Baden:

"The owner of a lot that has not been built upon can require the community to take it at once if, according to the established plan, the lot is to be surrendered in its entirety, or if and so far as it, in consequence of its location on an already existing street, is suitable for building, or if the lot is destined to be a public square, and the land for the streets surrounding the

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DISCUSSION

THOMAS ADAMS, *City Planning Adviser Conservation Commission of Canada:*

I am in a somewhat difficult position this morning, as I disagree on some points with the two speakers who have preceded me, and rather more I should say with Mr. Williams than I do with Dr. Whitten. I think it is my business, sir, to open the discussion and to deal with papers that have been read. I will therefore endeavor to confine attention to the points raised in those papers rather than to open up new issues.

In the main I think the suggestions made by Dr. Whitten are sound, except in so far as he introduces the word "tentative." In my experience no scheme that is brought forward of a tentative character is of much value except as an illustration for the information of the officials and the city council which is dealing with the matter. And once a city planning scheme reaches the stage of being a definite proposal to be carried out in practice it necessarily ceases to be tentative in its general form, and it must cease to be tentative in its details and provisions if it is going to be of any value whatsoever. The whole point is very strongly put by Mr. Williams in one of the last paragraphs of his paper where he says: "First it seems to me that some method of making certain features of city town planning binding on private property owners is essential."

Everyone knows the extent to which town planning touches private property, and we have got to realize the ramifications of city planning in that respect before we fully realize the necessity for making our schemes definite and

square has been acquired by the community." ("Ortsstrassengesetz vom 15 Oktober, 1908," sec. 8, par. 21.)

The law with relation to land destined to become a public square is the same in Württemberg ("Bauordnung," cited above, art. 15, par. 6) and Anhalt ("Bauordnung vom 19 Juni, 1905," sec. 14, par. 5).

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making these schemes before we start to operate them, making them of a character that we can secure legislative sanction for the provisions they contain.

Now the question of having a tentative plan or scheme is suggested, I think, because of the absence of legislation. Because there is no legislative power to back up a definite proposal for city planning some other method of securing the object is being sought. We do not speak in Canada, where we have legislation, or in Great Britain, where they have had the act since 1909, of a tentative plan, because we have got legislation to make it definite. Here, because of the constitutional difficulties perhaps in obtaining the powers to get definite plans prepared which you can make legal in form, I think the danger is that you are going to seek some method of escape from these difficulties and be content with a tentative plan.

Now what does the average tentative plan amount to? Detroit has had its tentative plan and, because it was tentative, it has failed to a large extent. Had the foresight and intelligence of those men who designed the central scheme for this city, had that been interpreted or incorporated in terms of law and made an act of Parliament which could not be altered, Detroit would have been a better city to-day. But because it was capable of variation according to the whims of a transitory municipal authority, because it was tentative and because there was no continuity of administration behind it, it was not properly carried out. When a plan is tentative it is subject to every whim and fancy of those who are in political power.

You may say, for instance, that your by-law system, that our by-law system in Canada is tentative. The city of Toronto may today pass a by-law that the heights of buildings in Toronto shall not exceed 100 feet and a week later it may decide they shall be 150 feet. It desires to keep that power, that discretionary power, but see how it injures the interests of those who have a large stake in property of the city. Apart from that — and I think to

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some extent that interferes with some of the arguments in Dr. Whitten's paper — apart from that I should subscribe to most of his suggestions, except this: I would say it is absolutely essential for town planning in the United States, as it is with us in Canada and it is in Great Britain, it is absolutely essential to have some constitutional state authority to supervise and to administer town planning.

You have, I think, a very good example of the method to pursue from our Canadian experience. We have not the constitutional difficulties that you have in these states. Our provinces are fairly powerful in the matter of dealing with municipal affairs and even with the right to deal with private rights in property. We do not appear to have the interference of the lawyers with our democratic principles when we touch these questions. A lawyer-made law is sometimes very fair and sound in principle, and I am one of those who plead for the lawyer in city planning, but in a democratic country, while you may want to limit discretionary power by democratic measures, you do not want that discretion so frequently overridden by legal technicalities.

Where some of our friends make the mistake is that they forget the lawyer. They prepare a fine scheme, they lay down a fine system of diagonal streets, a civic center and many suggestions which are excellent in themselves. And then they go to the lawyer and say: "We want to carry these out." Why, they should have gone to him before they started and got his opinion as to how to carry them out and the powers required to carry them out. The lawyer is required to come in at the earliest stage in connection with town planning and not in the final stages; otherwise he necessarily impedes progress rather than helps it.

Now, with regard to the paper of Mr. Williams, I do not want to be regarded as in any way prejudiced against German methods. I have spoken as enthusiastically as anybody about Germany and its town planning. I have vis-

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ited many of her cities and admire them in some respects. But I think, if I may say so, that Mr. Williams, while he seems to have studied German town planning very closely, does England this injustice — that he has not given it sufficient attention. The only criticism I would use with regard to German town planning is a quotation which I ventured to submit to the conference last year, which I will repeat and which comes from a Berlin source, not from my own lips, plus a statement of Mr. Williams himself, because to some extent he is self-contradictory. The statement I quoted last year was from the "Westminster Gazette," from a Berlin correspondent:

"Town planning in Germany is being reformed on principles borrowed from England, but the inadequate town planning still practised by most important municipalities drives building land to extravagant prices and militates against the provision of dwellings."

Now the first object of town planning is to promote sound business conditions and sound living conditions. And the first result of town planning in Germany appears to be to destroy the main object for which the town planning schemes are prepared.

Mr. Williams in his paper says: "The central feature of the Prussian act is the method and purpose, under it, of fixing the lines of the streets." This is the central feature of an act which, he says, is by far the greatest measure of city planning in Europe. It fixes the lines of the streets and matters of a similar kind. But, as he knows, the Prussian act of 1875 was based practically on the Italian act of 1865 and the Swedish act of 1874 and is not a town planning act at all. It is a series of regulations governing building lines and street lines, and was only called a town extension act. The Italian act and the Swedish act have been successful, but they have not had the driving force of the Prussian autocracy behind them. That is the only real distinction between them. And that autocracy is of immense value in a matter of this kind to secure an even sky

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line, a harmonious grouping of buildings or a satisfactory building line. But the price you may have to pay for it is the price of liberty. You might in a democratic country say that men shall not put up buildings higher than six stories, but you cannot say that every building shall be six stories in a particular street, otherwise you would have everybody relieved of office in the responsible city council at very frequent intervals. After all we are prepared to accept the kind of autocracy which says: "You shall not do wrong," but we are not prepared to accept the dictation of another man who says: "I know the way, and it is right, and nobody else knows it, and you have got to do what I tell you."

We must have in a democratic country that amount of restriction which will prevent us from injuring our neighbors; but after all, this great continent has to thank the inspiration of liberty and its democratic institutions for the greatness which it has attained, and we will have to base our city planning on that democratic foundation. We must make our town planning democratic. And it is because we have to make it democratic that I disagree with Mr. Williams in his suggestion that Germany offers anything in the way of an example.

The boulevards in this city are as fine as the boulevards you will find in some of those German cities which are so highly praised and which are looked upon as a Mecca for American tourists. I have heard a German — Professor Eberstadt — himself say that the external features of city planning in Germany, the grandiose and spacious streets, are merely for the purpose of impressing the visitors. He was one of those men who took a very strong stand that all that money which was spent in German cities in making those fine streets and securing those fine architectural effects was so much money taken from securing healthy conditions for the poorer people of those cities. There seems to be some truth in that, because in Berlin 65 per cent of the people are living in houses of less than three rooms, as

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against, I think, about 25 per cent in the great city of London, where we are regarded as having so many slums.

I do not wish to press this point regarding housing conditions, because on former occasions I have dealt rather fully with that question as one which was being neglected, and I think that the Conference has been taking it up seriously enough; but I would like to try and indicate or repeat some of the considerations which seem to me to be necessary to be repeated in order that we may come to a proper understanding of what we in Canada regard as proper town planning.

I would like to say, first, that I listened with a great deal of pleasure to those who spoke last night on the architectural side of town planning. We want to give that every possible consideration, but I do not think we want to forget this — that the city exists for the purpose of carrying on business. You can have a city or a town without a civic center and it can still exist, although it may not be satisfactory, but you cannot have a city unless there is some business purpose connected with its existence. The *raison d'être* of a city is to carry on business. It may be to distribute agricultural produce, it may be to manufacture motor cars, it may be to manufacture laws, as in Washington, but there is a business purpose for the foundation of every city. The conservation of its business interests is necessarily the first consideration of the town planner. The promotion of healthy conditions of home life is a second consideration.

Now to say that the foundation of town planning is business and healthy housing conditions is not to say that architecture need be neglected. These things come later. They are the expression of the intelligence and the artistic qualities of the people as a whole, and they are the expression of the civic conscience of the people as they build up the city, but they do not form the foundation of city life. To say that this hotel first requires a foundation is not to say that it does not require a superstructure or that the

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superstructure is unimportant. But the foundation of those buildings comes first and it has a great deal to do even with the architecture, and certainly it is necessary to have the foundation before you put up the building. The foundation of your town planning is the consideration of the business interests and the home conditions of the people.

When you consider that and when you consider the numerous private interests that have to be dealt with in preparing your scheme, then you see the necessity of having legislation behind you in order to do so on satisfactory lines.

Now there is one suggestion by Mr. Williams regarding English methods in which I think he has somewhat misunderstood the British act. He says: "The act only applies to land in the course of development or land likely to be used for building purposes."

The act does apply primarily to that land, but it may include the land already built upon if there is any reason for including such land. If the Local Government Board in its opinion decides that a building lot or building land ought to be included, it can include it, but it merely means this — it places the responsibility for including the built-upon land on a special decision of the Local Government Board, and I think rightfully so. It merely means that before you include a built-upon lot you will have to go carefully into the question of whether you are going to interfere with those who have erected those buildings and invested their money in them, and whether it is necessary for some purpose of the scheme to include such land or not.

If, for instance, a town planning scheme were prepared for Detroit, a great part of the city might very well be left out of the city planning area, because there is nothing that you can do with it at reasonable expense. Therefore you may as well save yourself the trouble of serving notices on all the owners in order to include that land. But in order to overcome any ambiguity about that question in Canada we say in our act, which is based on the British

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precedent, we say that *all* land may be included in the town planning scheme. We thus make no distinction between land that is already built upon and land that is not. At the same time, in practice, I am certain a great deal of land which is already built upon will be excluded. The suggestion has been made by Mr. Williams that because in England they proceed by means of sectional schemes, therefore it is a district planning act and not a comprehensive city planning act.

Well now, if any of you engineers or architects can realize what it means to plan Greater London, can you imagine any practical way of doing it as one comprehensive scheme? Take 1000 square miles, put it on one map of 25 inches to the mile and it would carpet a considerable part of this city of Detroit. To deal with an area of 1000 square miles, 640,000 acres, you will have 100 maps, each containing 600 acres and each of which would certainly cover the two panels of this wall which you see on the left. Just imagine the difficulty of making one large map instead of 100 for that area. You couldn't do it and you would therefore have to proceed in sections, for practical reasons connected with the preparation of maps.

Take another point. There are 137 authorities in the area of Greater London. Each of those authorities has jurisdiction in its own area and each of them has to deal with its own separate area. Schemes have to be prepared in sections, therefore, for the purpose of giving each authority power to plan its own area. The authorities are made by the Local Government Board to coöperate and to secure one unified plan. Now if all I can hear about the United States is correct, adjacent authorities do not always agree, for instance, in having one water supply, even when desirable, upon methods of administering their joint areas. Now if it is difficult to get two authorities to agree, how much more difficult is it to get 137? And yet these 137 authorities in Greater London are trying to determine the whole of the main arterial roads in an area 1000 square

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miles as the basis for their series of town planning schemes. On that basis each separate local authority has to prepare its own scheme, and in that respect it is sectional. But uniformity is secured by the central administration of the Local Government Board, which has to approve every one of those sectional schemes. You see the importance of this natural or state supervision for the purpose of securing united action.

Now Highland Park is outside of Detroit. If Detroit prepared a town planning scheme, it would be a great misfortune if Highland Park did not work in with that scheme and prepare a scheme which would be in harmony with it. Yet as human nature is, and with your form of municipal government, it is very unlikely that the authorities will agree without some pressure from a state department. By having this state department and this legislation in England they not only can get two authorities to work together, but 137 in one district. Those 137 are giving themselves up in this time of tragedy in Europe to conferences for the purpose of trying to settle these very questions with which we have so much difficulty on this side of the Atlantic. As Mr. Crawford pointed out yesterday, authority to prepare schemes has been given, or is about to be given, to about 120 local authorities or municipalities in England in respect of areas which will provide for a population of about 18,000,000 people. These schemes are prepared in advance of the requirements by from 25 to 100 years. I think that the misapprehension regarding them being sectional is due to the fact that as a matter of practice they have to be sectional for reasons I have given, but unity is obtained by the central department.

I think it is right that we should at these discussions express our differences of opinion and try to get at the truth. That is what I think we are here for. I think we are here to talk about technicalities and not to ignore them. We are here to deal with the matter in a businesslike way and not solely from the point of view of the artist. We are not

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to ignore his point of view, but we are also to consider what is necessary for securing his and other purposes on a sound financial basis. And we have at the same time to consider that the truth is often best obtained by each of us getting up and expressing a different point of view. What I have endeavored to make clear is that a central state department is necessary to supervise municipal action in city planning, that plans must be definite and not merely tentative and that to accomplish these purposes legislation is necessary as a preliminary.

With regard to actual experience I think while I am on my feet I should like to indicate what we are doing in Canada. We have our Commission of Conservation at Ottawa, which is a Dominion department. The department is advisory and is not an executive body. They take the attitude that their duty is not only to conserve natural resources, but is to conserve human life by promoting public health, and even to conserve the finances and general stability of our municipalities. Our duty is therefore one of national conservation. We not only want to conserve resources in the rural districts, but also in the cities which are growing up in Canada. You know we have about half of our people living in cities and towns.

We have passed a compulsory town planning act for Nova Scotia, and the whole province of Nova Scotia must be town planned within three years, according to that act. In Alberta there is a permissive act. In Saskatchewan there is a proposal to introduce a compulsory town planning act by the Hon. Mr. Langley, who spoke at the last Conference.

The cities and towns are asking for compulsory legislation. Only two or three days ago I attended a conference in southwestern Ontario where there were 20 cities represented. They unanimously passed a resolution calling upon the Ontario legislature to compel them to town plan. That is the right order in which to proceed.

Compulsion brought from the top on a democratic people will never succeed, but where the people recognize the

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need for controlling the excesses of liberty and themselves suggest means to do so, success is certain.

We are succeeding in Canada and going even farther than they are in England. In so far as we have settled principles definitely fixed in our minds we are making it compulsory planning, and in so far as we cannot do so we are leaving it optional.

I should like to explain briefly what is compulsory and what is optional. The compulsory provisions are that every authority, whether municipality, rural municipality, town or city, shall create a local town planning board. That is the first compulsory section. The second is that every subdivision which is hereafter made shall be submitted to and approved by that local board when it is created. The third provision is that the local board must within three years prepare a set of town planning by-laws or a town planning scheme. The town planning by-laws must lay down certain minimum provisions and conditions. For instance, in Nova Scotia no building can be erected nearer to another, on opposite sides of a street, than 80 feet if it is a main thoroughfare. They must also prepare a by-law governing the limitation of the houses to the acre. The question of whether any area shall be specially set aside for factories and whether any area shall be set aside for shopping or some other purpose must be covered in those by-laws.

Now town planning has to be social as well as architectural. It has also to have a sound financial basis. And I venture to say that when these matters are considered at the outset it will be found that our scheme will conform to the ideas advanced by Dr. Whitten and others that a scheme has to provide for growth. We must make provision for alterations as we go along, but we must fix only those things as definite which can be fixed now either by agreement with owners or at the public expense after due consideration of the cost, otherwise our whole planning will be unsuccessful.

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And finally, do not let us leave the lawyer out of the town planning at the beginning of our schemes. A town planning scheme in England is an act of Parliament and the plan is illustrative of the act. Unless you get legal powers first, you are in this position — that the more perfect your plan, the less certain is it that you can carry it out, except at an unreasonable expense, because you have given your case away by preparing the plan. Those who are in a position to defeat your scheme have the knowledge which enables them to do it if they wish to defeat it.

I hope that in opening this discussion I have raised some points that will bring out other views.

A. L. BROCKWAY, *Chairman City Plan Commission, Syracuse:*

We have in Syracuse today a commission which is in its second year of official existence and previous to its appointment we had a committee of the chamber of commerce which worked on city planning for about three years. The plan commission is created by the authority of a general enabling act passed by the legislature of New York, which makes the appointment of such commissions permissive. From several years' experience, both with the committee of the chamber and with the plan commission, we have learned first that the type of city government must determine specifically what the functions of the city planning authority in any city shall be, and, second, that plan commissions should have definite and final authority in some matters at least. Whether that authority shall be given in the form of a veto power or whether the general departments of the city government shall be reorganized are matters which need to have further study. While I appreciate that this discussion must necessarily deal with generalities, I am sure that these generalities can only be arrived at through the study of specific instances and I shall cite some from our experience.

We tried by state law to govern housing conditions in

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cities of the second class. The law was in existence for one year, and raised a howl from one end of the state to the other. It was repealed at the next session of the legislature with the recommendation by the legislative committee that each city should adopt a housing act suited to its own peculiar requirements. I refer to this act as showing the difficulty of using mandatory or even permissive legislation.

Not until the man on the street becomes impressed with a higher respect for law than the average man in his country shall we make the advance in city planning that we expect to. The autocracy of the imperial German government is a tremendous asset, and the respect for law on the part of the citizen of Germany and England, particularly in England where the government is really more democratic than in this country, is the thing that makes success possible. The great stumbling block in our country which both Mr. Williams and Mr. Adams have pointed out is the question of private property, the fundamental rights of the private individual. It is a very fair definition of a city that it is a place to do business in, to live in, and to get from your home to your business and do it pleasantly and comfortably. Now if the individual is going to insist upon his own rights it will be very difficult to secure the unity of interest which is essential to the best growth of the city.

Syracuse is operated under a charter common to all second class cities in New York. The common council made up of one representative from each ward is the legislative authority. The administrative officers are the five members of the Board of Estimates and Apportionment, consisting of the mayor, corporation counsel, comptroller, city engineer and president of the council. In the course of organization of the departments considerable control over the physical growth of the city is given to the department of public works and much authority is conferred upon the city engineer and the commissioner of public works who are both members of this department. The result is often that street openings, street extensions and street improvements

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are made in accordance with no definite comprehensive plan, but merely follow the whim of this man or that.

Now we believe that the city planning authority is exactly as important as the department of public works or the department of health. We believe that such a department is necessary to prevent deformities in the addition of outlying districts already existing and to prevent deformities in the arrangement and rearrangement of the rapid transit system. As in New York state where 169 departments and commissions, overlapping but in no way coördinating, are responsible for administration, so in a city like Syracuse there is no one definite head to determine the business policy of the city. We believe that the work of the city engineer, of the commissioner of public works, of the park commission and a special commission called the grade crossing commission, might well be grouped together to perform a part of the work of the city planning department. To illustrate: We have a very serious grade crossing problem in Syracuse; the New York Central crosses the entire east and west ends of the town at grade. The legislature passed an act creating a special commission and gave the commission the power, subject to the approval of the Board of Estimates and Apportionment of Syracuse, to issue bonds for the purpose of obligating the city for its portion of the expense in connection with elimination of the grade crossing. You can see that nothing could be more important to Syracuse than the solution of the grade crossing problem in accordance with a comprehensive plan, yet there has been no coöperation between the grade crossing commission and the city planning commission. About a year ago the grade crossing commission contributed for an exhibit in New York City a tentative study which the city planning commission had made, but no credit was given to the city planning commission. I cite this as a reason to justify my stand that until a city planning authority is vested with some actual authority either by a veto power, or by representation on the Board of Estimates and Ap-

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portionment, we cannot expect the members of common councils or the average citizen to have the respect for a city planning authority which they should have.

In connection with the drainage and canal system of the state the New York legislature has made provision for a terminal in Syracuse. After several years' study, a plan which was worked out by a committee of the chamber of commerce and the Technology Club was finally adopted by the Canal Board and 95 per cent of the opinion of Syracuse was focused upon the location suggested for a terminal. The state engineer was to go ahead with its construction, but year after year went by and nothing was done. The city plan commission did what it could in the matter, but being entirely advisory it was like a fly buzzing around the state engineer, and he paid very little attention to it.

Last January a change of administration brought in a Republican state engineer. The question as to the location of the terminal appeared again for public discussion. An entire elimination of all the previous plans, of all the studies for location of industries of the city and for the possibility of development of great industrial areas, — all these were thrown to the winds. After a few spasmodic efforts a conference was held. The representative of the New York Central was there and the mayor and his city engineer and one or two members of the grade crossing commission, and at this conference was presented a new plan by the new state engineer which entirely disregarded all previous studies. The city planning commission was not considered of particular importance in the deliberation because the chief engineer of the New York Central and the state engineer said if the question were opened to the public it would throw the whole thing in the air and delay it so long that the terminal might be lost entirely. If the city planning authority in Syracuse had been vested with a veto power as it is in the matter of new subdivisions both within the city and outside of the city, a good deal might have been accomplished.

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We are having a state convention in New York these days for the purpose of revising the constitution, a thing that occurs about once in twenty years. I believe there is going to be a pretty radical reorganization of the governmental departments of the state. I believe there will be a provision which will allow cities to organize their government according to their own requirements, and that that form of government will include some recognition of the fact that city planning is today standing up and ready to walk, and that means will be provided for it to walk with a steady tread in the right direction.

AUSTEN H. MCGREGOR, *President City Plan Commission, Newark, N. J.:*

FROM inception the city planning agency and all connected with it are usually on the defensive, either because the public lacks knowledge or understanding of its purpose or because the public is unable, either in fact or in idea, to divorce city planning from politics. It is difficult but important to dispel these two clouds of doubt and suspicion.

To remove the lack of knowledge or misunderstanding is the easier task. The plan must be practical. It must be so clearly formulated as to be easily intelligible and not open to petty criticism, and its features should be made widely known by an able publicity campaign. To convince the citizen public that the city plan has to do with the physical rather than the political future welfare of the city is not so easy a task. Its accomplishment depends greatly upon the character of the city planning agency, upon the personal qualities of the members and their general attitude toward civic problems. Furthermore it must be self-evident to the citizens that some plan is a vital necessity, that this plan is founded upon facts which have been thoroughly studied rather than upon a superficial knowledge of general conditions and, lastly, that the ends at which the plan aims justify the means of accomplishment. Thus to show that the plan is an imperative part

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of the city structure rather than a panacea for all municipal ills is to make for eventual success.

CREATION OF CITY PLANNING AGENCY

There should be in every state an act of the legislature making mandatory the creation of city planning agencies. This means widespread activity with broad results. To make the creation of the city planning agency permissive means, in many instances, a lack of response, chiefly because of lethargy or ignorance of the subject's vital importance.

ORGANIZATION OF CITY PLANNING AGENCY

The city planning agency should consist of not less than five nor more than seven members in cities having a population of 100,000 and of three to five members in cities and towns under 100,000. For effective work it is essential to have a small board. If a larger membership is desired, citizens and officials may be added as advisory members only.

An agency of five members could well consist of the city engineer; one other representative city official, for instance a member of the board of estimate, common council, city commission or similar body; and three citizens of the highest repute, preferably a representative business man, a physician and an architect or lawyer. Much depends upon the personal character of these men; the decisions of the board will carry much more weight if they are free from suspicion of political bias.

City planning demands expert administration. There should be at the command of the board expert advisers having wide experience in engineering, in architecture and in publicity, and the office force, according to the size of the municipality and the character of its problems, should be trained to render the necessary services along these three lines.

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POWERS OF CITY PLANNING AGENCY

The powers of a city planning agency can be considered under two headings: (1) those which are mandatory, subject to the veto of the executive governing body; (2) those which are purely recommendatory. Since the city planning agency is usually appointive it would be contrary to the principles of good government to vest it with absolute power, yet the power to investigate and report only is insufficient and tends to belittle the value of its work. The supervision of the design and regulation of all public buildings, bridges, statues, etc., and of land subdivisions could well be placed in the control of the city planning agency, subject to the veto of the executive governing body.

Among the other powers and duties concerning which it should have authority to recommend only should be any public or quasi-public improvement having to do with the physical development of the city. This would include everything to be contained in the comprehensive plan as, for instance: (a) street system; (b) parks, playgrounds and recreation system; (c) transit and transportation; (d) rail and water terminals; (e) markets; (f) districting of city for the purpose of regulating height, area and use of buildings; (g) housing; (h) official city map (unless already provided by other city department).

There will be a varying degree of work to be done under each of the above subjects according to the specific problems of each community and the degree to which the municipality has progressed along these lines. And the desirability of having a body free from political or other bias which can freely express opinions on these problems is apparent, although such a device is unusual.

PROGRAM OF PROCEDURE

The first thing to do is to form the city planning agency and put it on a working basis. After that two things must be done simultaneously.

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There should be a publicity campaign. It is almost impossible to put too much emphasis upon publicity, for upon the degree to which the citizen public appreciates the necessity for a well defined policy of public improvement depends the manner in which the plan will be received and adopted.

And there should be a collection of data. An intelligent plan can be prepared only after obtaining an intimate knowledge of actual conditions. Such knowledge depends upon the collection of the proper data.

These two activities can be made to aid each other. As the knowledge of various phases of the subject is obtained it is advisable to publish, from time to time, separate reports which will supplement the work in publicity and gradually acquaint the public with the conditions encountered, so that when the time comes for the next step there will be an enlightened public opinion prepared to judge of its value in view of the facts.

This next step is the presentation of a tentative plan. Properly prepared for by previous reports, this can be intelligently discussed. Had the publicity work not been done, the immediate effect of this plan would have been too staggering for complete comprehension.

Included in the data minutely studied in the preparation of the plan would be the financial condition of the municipality, and this first plan would roughly provide for the financial transactions necessary for its fulfilment.

When the tentative plan has been canvassed and revised, the final plan should be prepared and presented in the form of a program of procedure whereby the whole may be completed within a given period. This would anticipate a certain amount of work to be accomplished during each year and would be accompanied by a detailed program of the financial transactions incident to the accomplishment of the completed plan.

To conclude, it has been the aim of the speaker to present such answers to the questionnaire received from the com-

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mittee in charge of this work as have suggested themselves with particular reference to the experience of the Newark City Plan Commission. As in all work it is impossible to accomplish desirable things without here and there an occasional error, I do not hold the Newark City Plan Commission up to you as a model of virtue. I do say this, however: if city planning agencies can convince the citizen public that the improvements which they know are desirable can more properly be obtained in a practical and systematic manner, which is most heartily our aim in Newark, and furthermore, if these agencies can assist such accomplishment, their usefulness can never be questioned, and hence the American municipality will know less of chaos, inefficiency and politics and more of dignity and amenity.

ALFRED BETTMAN, Esq., *Cincinnati, Ohio*:

Dr. Whitten and Mr. Adams have raised an issue, and a very interesting issue, as to whether or not city planning activities should be imposed on a municipality or voluntarily assumed by it, and whether the execution of city planning activity shall repose exclusively in municipal authorities or partly in municipal and partly in state and national authorities; and of course each of the contestants feels that he has given the correct and only correct formula in the matter.

I believe the truth is that in this, as in all other political questions, there is no system or device which is always and necessarily the right one for all communities at all times or even at all times for any particular community, but that the situation in any particular city or state or nation at a particular time is the result of an historical development which has produced certain particular evils or defects at that time, and these need a particular remedy; whereas another community with a different situation due to a different historical action or development suffers from evils which demand some other remedy.

Now whatever may be true of England or Canada, in

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certain portions of the United States at least a very full measure of home rule, a very full measure of municipal freedom from state control is, at this particular time and in the particular situation in which the developed American communities now find themselves, necessary to eradicate existing defects.

To be a little more concrete, I will take my own state of Ohio, in which conditions may differ from those of other states, but whose conditions I may discuss freely without danger of discourtesy to other communities.

It is a highly developed industrial community with many large cities presenting peculiarly American municipal problems. At the same time, however, its state government has a rather rural point of view or attitude. That is an historical development, due to the fact that Ohio was for so long a time a highly developed agricultural state, and its state institutions were modeled upon the past predominating agricultural conditions. Although the cities contain a majority of population, the rural communities control a majority of the state legislature, by means of a very unique and apparently unbreakable provision of the state constitution. State officers, accustomed to more rural conditions, are constantly shocked over the amounts of money expended by municipalities and seek to devise means of restricting municipal activities. Without going into too much detail, it may be said that there has developed in state administrations a rather rural point of view toward city problems, a failure to be conscious of the intensity and importance of those city problems and of the necessity of correcting the evils of city life by strong and generally expensive community action. In such a situation it is necessary for the cities to free themselves, to educate themselves as to what is necessary to the development of better conditions in cities. Possibly when a stage has been reached at which the cities shall have freed themselves, shall have devised a machinery for self-education and self-development in city planning matters, perhaps when that situation is reached, certain new

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defects or evils will also have developed as a by-product of the home rule enjoyed by the cities, and it may be that these evils will in future need correction by state action. But in just the present situation in a state like Ohio, where large industrial cities have grown rapidly, but still the communities are old enough and settled long enough to have developed numerous and powerful private property interests — which distinguishes them from the conditions in the Canadian West, for instance, where the private property interests are not so complex and numerous and highly developed — in such a situation as that in which Ohio cities find themselves, a very large measure of home rule is absolutely essential, and each city must itself learn to want city planning and itself have the determination of whether there shall be city planning and what sort and how much.

With that point of view we have just written, and the Ohio legislature has just passed, a city planning act, the first piece of city planning legislation in the state of Ohio other than city planning sections of a few municipal charters. This statute contains a mixture of voluntary and involuntary features and really turns out to be quite along the line of Dr. Whitten's recommendations. It provides that any city may decide for itself whether it wants a city planning commission. Once it has decided upon a city planning commission, that commission's work and that commission's plans have some legal force. In order to get continuity, more continuity than would result from a change of personnel in the commission every two years as we change the personnel of our city administration, the term of commissioners has been made six years. The customary device of a mixture of official and citizen members of commission has been followed.

Until the planning commission shall have developed a complete plan of the city, it has no powers other than advisory powers. Once, however, it has formed its plan, then the commission will become practically a department of the

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city government; for from that time its consent is necessary to the location of any public improvement or public utility, unless its refusal to consent is overridden by two-thirds of the city legislative department, together with that part of the city administration which is in charge of the construction of the peculiar kind of improvement that is under discussion. So that it really becomes, practically speaking, a department of the city government whose consent is necessary to the location of all structures affecting the public, unless there is an overwhelming contrary opinion on the part of the executive and legislative departments of the city.

Now we believe that legislation corresponds to the particular situation of Ohio municipalities today. It may not fit a situation such as Western Canada, where new cities are just being built. It would perhaps not be a logical piece of legislation in Great Britain, where the imperial legislature meets in the midst of the most intensive urban environment in the whole country and represents or at least is largely permeated with an urban point of view. But in the situation which exists in all the older portions of the United States, such a piece of legislation at least answers the present development and enables some progress in city planning. And that progress will disclose what further steps shall prove to be necessary in order to deal adequately with the particular future conflicts and problems that municipal life and growth may produce.

MR. FREDERICK LAW OLNSTED, *Boston*:

Dr. Whitten made clear the reasons why it is necessary for the sake of administrative efficiency and unification that the final responsibility in city planning should rest upon the central governing body of the city. Mr. Brockway, from a slightly different point of view, made the same point clear. This may be effected in various ways: either by making the city planning office a subordinate bureau of the central administrative authority, or with a quasi-independ-

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ent city planning commission by giving them merely a suspensory veto over the decisions of the central administrative authority.

On the other hand it was pointed out that there is difficulty in maintaining that continuity of purpose which is so vitally important in city planning if the final responsibility thus rests upon a municipal authority subject to frequent changes of personnel, changes which depend upon political considerations that are not usually connected with any question of city plan policy. A new administration, elected upon an issue which has nothing to do with city planning, may hastily overturn a policy deliberately established and long maintained by the city planning office with the approval of preceding administrations.

When a plan is once officially adopted as the city plan, when a certain policy is developed by the city plan office and adopted by the responsible city government after due deliberation, there should be, for the sake of continuity and steadiness of purpose, some check upon its too easy overturn, without impairing the subordination of the city planning office to the responsible city government. One method would be to require that such an overturn of policy or change of an adopted plan must receive the approval of some independent authority quite external to the municipality, corresponding to the Local Government Board in Great Britain or the state officials who act in Germany as a board of appeal in regard to changes in established city plans.

Having spoken of this desirable form of negative control over local city planning by state authorities, let me add a word about positive control.

Mr. Brockway spoke of the difficulty of imposing on our cities uniform state regulations for the control of city planning. He cited the case of the New York state housing law against which there was a reaction because it was thought by the cities that it imposed too much regulation upon them from above, and he seemed to suggest the alterna-

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tive of a complete home rule in such matters, leaving action wholly to local initiative. In that connection it is interesting to cite what Mr. Adams pointed out as taking place in Canada, where all of the municipalities of a certain province have had a few fundamental standards in city planning fixed for them from above, but aside from these standards have been given as much latitude as possible in adjusting their planning to local needs and preferences. In Massachusetts a state-wide building law has been framed which, under most of its headings, gives a wide range of local option to the towns and cities of the state in fixing the standards to be required of builders, but which includes certain mandatory requirements applicable throughout the state, such as permissible loads upon a given type of beam for example. Standards not dependent on local conditions are then fixed by the state, and for the sake of convenience in the use of the various local codes uniform methods of statement for the definition of certain other standards are prescribed by the state, although the filling in of the blanks with actual figures is left for local decision. Is this not the way to proceed in framing city planning laws?

MR. M. N. BAKER, *New York*:

I am interested in this subject at all times, and particularly so just now because I have been asked, as a member of the Municipal Program Committee of the National Municipal League, to draw a very brief city planning section of a model city charter. The problem is to embody in the small compass of a section of a short charter something which will be sufficiently broad and elastic to fit cities large and small throughout the whole country.

It seems imperative to have the city planning authority thoroughly coördinated with the other branches of the city government and subordinate to the city council or commission.

To secure this coördination the city engineer should be a member of the city planning commission, possibly also

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the director or commissioner of public works, and since there is so close a relation between health and city planning, there is reason for having the administrative health officer a member of the city planning commission. Finally, I wish to invite this conference to coöperate with the National Municipal League committee in its attempt to draft a city planning section of a model city charter.

MR. MARSHALL R. PUGH, *Philadelphia*:

Mr. Baker has spoken of the work that the National Municipal League is doing in regard to framing a general city charter. This league may possibly give help and light to some of us who are struggling in very considerable gloom over the problems involved where city planning and suburban planning touch each other — that species of twilight zone which surrounds the city, neither city nor country, the commuting district.

I think we are too apt to forget the fact that a modern city differs from the old-time city not merely in degree, but in kind. Carlyle speaks of Fortunatus and his wishing hat, which, when he clapped it on his head and wished he were anywhere, behold! he was there. Modern transportation has practically put us in the position of Fortunatus. It has utterly changed the whole development of cities and their character of growth.

In a metropolitan community there is a central section, the city proper. Radiating from this along the various transportation lines, like spokes of a wheel, are densely populated strips and clusters of suburban villages. Between these lie farms and frequently more or less rugged hills and valleys unsuitable for urban development, which will for a long period of time remain rural.

The territory surrounding Philadelphia furnishes a typical example. The zone under the jurisdiction of the Suburban Metropolitan Planning Commission comprises 200 towns, townships, boroughs and cities — 200 district political entities, all of them working more or less at cross

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purposes. Along one of the radial strips just mentioned are some 20 towns side by side, some of them completely surrounded by others. So closely are they crowded together that their problems of sewage disposal are incapable of solution by any one of them. Coördinated action is essential, but they have been attempting to get this for the past eight or ten years and seem no nearer to the goal than they were at the start. Highways and numerous other questions are also involved.

Yet we must not lose sight of the fact that local self-government is important, and town planning is but one of a number of desirable things. In our zeal, while we may not overestimate its importance, we are apt to underrate other matters of grave consequence.

In Pennsylvania we are confronted with constitutional difficulties, which I apprehend would be the case in a number of other states as well.

One of these troubles is to find a constitutional method of raising funds. Another obstacle encountered is the difficulty of inducing the various local authorities to work together, so that comprehensive action can be taken, and the apparent impossibility of legally applying a certain degree of compulsion, which would seem to be necessary to achieve any marked results.

MR. T. S. MORRIS, *Hamilton, Ont.*:

I would like to ask whether in the composition of the city planning board it is better to have the majority of the board composed of city officials or of representative citizens. I would like to have Dr. Whitten answer that question if he will be good enough.

DR. WHITTEN:

Whether, in the case of a city planning commission made up partly of official and partly of non-official members, the majority representation should be given to the official or to the non-official members may depend a great deal upon

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the particular city. I have said that in organizing a city planning authority existing officials should be used so far as practicable. The proportion of official members will therefore vary in different cities. Only a few of those who answered the questionnaire stated any preference in regard to this particular matter, but those few stated that they believed that the non-official members should constitute a majority of the commission.

MAJOR JOSEPH W. SHIRLEY, *Baltimore:*

One question that seems to be troubling most cities, as brought out in this morning's discussion, is: What should constitute the personnel of a commission on city plan? This seems to be a question on which there may be an honest difference of opinion and, I am sure, will not be settled at this Conference and probably not at the next Conference. While this question is being discussed the cities of the country are growing, some of them very rapidly, and I cannot help saying a word or two on what can be done in connection with a city plan while this question of the commission is being thrashed out.

No time should be lost by any city in working out a plan. Until some careful supervision is given to what is going on in the sections now being developed, much correction will be necessary after we have obtained what we might think to be a model method of working out a city plan.

There are several points that I might mention which we have found to be very useful in Baltimore and which may help many cities likewise. About twenty-three years ago Baltimore annexed quite an area to its limits and realized that the best way to know just what it had acquired was to obtain a complete topographical survey and map of this territory. This Baltimore did by making a liberal appropriation, and the results obtained, I am sure, justified the expenditure.

Every city, before it is able to study properly the territory to be developed, should have a complete topographical

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map. This it takes time to make and, therefore, should be begun as soon as possible, in order to have it completed by the time the commission necessary to carrying out a plan is ready.

Upon the completion of Baltimore's topographical map the Topographical Survey Commission, the department which had prepared the map, was directed by the mayor and city council to prepare a street plan covering the area lately acquired, and after studying the situation a tentative plan was adopted by the city. In order to carry out this plan of streets the city of Baltimore called upon the state legislature to pass an act which was substantially as follows — that no street or avenue could be condemned or opened nor could the city accept the deed or dedication of any street or avenue unless the same conformed with the general plan of streets which had been adopted or was in accordance with an amendment to the general plan. An amendment to the plan could only be made by the joint approval of the Topographical Survey Commission and the mayor and city council. This act was passed by the legislature and has been in force for a number of years. It has served the city very well in carrying out the street plan. Smooth sailing has not always been the case, but in all controversies the city has accomplished what it feels was satisfactory.

The carrying out of this street plan necessarily keeps the city in close touch with the land developer, who soon understands that should he lay out a street on his own property, which of course he has a right to do, unless the location of that street conforms to the city's plan, it must be maintained by him as a private street. This being the case, he stops to think before doing so, to determine whether it is not better for him to have the city's endorsement of his plan, with an opportunity to turn over to the city his street bed as a public street, than to maintain for the balance of time a private street, which, of necessity, will be a source of expense and trouble to him. The purchaser of the proper-

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ties bordering along this street also prefers being on a street which is cared for by the city rather than on one cared for by a private individual.

We have found that these conferences with the real estate developers have been mutually beneficial, and we believe that the city of Baltimore, through its Topographical Survey Commission, has gained the confidence of most land developers and that the results obtained by frequent consultations have been very satisfactory.

It is to these three points that I wish to call the attention of the members of the conference, for I feel sure that with action along this line much may be accomplished.

MR. MORRIS:

May I ask who you mean by "we"? You say "we" can do so and so. "We" can accomplish so and so. Who do you mean by "we"? I mean before the commission is formed.

MAJOR SHIRLEY:

I will explain in this way: by referring to "we" I mean the Topographical Survey Commission, which, as stated above, was the commission formed to prepare the map and to which, after the map was completed, powers were delegated to prepare a street plan and to supervise the carrying of it out. This commission is composed of the mayor, the city comptroller and the city register, who employ a chief engineer and the necessary force for making surveys, plans, etc. The personnel of this commission changes of course with the different administrations.

MR. JOHN NOLEN, *Cambridge*:

I want to give a word of endorsement to what seems to me to be the advantages of a mandatory law as against a permissive law in the case of city plan commissions. Of course if we can get the cities, as Mr. Adams suggested, demanding this mandatory law, it is without question very

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much more effective. But in watching things in Massachusetts in the last five or six years, I have been very much impressed with the lack of initiative on the part of the cities, as compared with what happened when some requirement or direct stimulus came from the state. It was shown in the case of the playground referendum which the state law forced on the cities. We found, before that law was passed, that cities were doing comparatively little in the way of the playground movement. The law simply required that cities and towns should put the referendum to the vote of the people; as soon as it was put to the vote of the people it was passed by all except two of the cities and towns of the state which were required to act upon it. As the result a great many playgrounds were established. In other words, apparently this force did not express itself in cities and towns without the state law. We have seen something of the same sort with regard to housing both in towns and cities.

Now we have the city planning mandatory law in Massachusetts. Take a city like Cambridge, which I think would not have established a city planning commission on its own initiative, and did it under the state law in a reluctant and perfunctory way. Now Cambridge is getting genuinely interested in the subject because it has discovered that city planning is something rather different from what is was believed to be.

With regard to another point: the question of the veto power of planning boards or the method of sustaining action by the planning board as against the city government. The Metropolitan (Boston) Planning Commission which worked out a proposed law held a good many public hearings in order to get the views on this question of the 38 towns and cities round about Boston, asking them what should be the action, in case a planning board were created, in enforcing a decision. I think I am right in my recollection that the majority view was that the result could best be obtained by what was called a suspensive veto; that is,

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if any action were taken contrary to a proposed plan or project, the planning board, in this case Metropolitan — the principle, however, is the same — would have the right to compel a suspension of action for a given period. Six months was suggested and a year was suggested. This came as a suggestion from the people who were going to suffer or be restrained, so the planning board finally accepted it as a form satisfactory to the local bodies.

From observation of city planning in Massachusetts and in Pennsylvania I have come to believe in the state authority and feel strongly the advantage of a central state body helping more than controlling the local bodies. The Massachusetts Homestead Commission has more than justified its existence.

If I may, I should like to ask two questions of Dr. Whitten. In the subject of the art jury, the proposed separation of the art jury from a local planning board in which there are great advantages, I was wondering how you could work out the functions so that the art jury would be distinct from the planning board, in the case, for example, of what it was good to do in the location of buildings in a civic center or in the matter of a design of a park. In other words, that I may make myself clear, should such decision be left to the action of the art jury, assuming both bodies exist, or to the planning board? Where should the line be drawn? What should be recognized as art judgment and what as planning judgment?

The other question is whether there was any evidence in the returns from the committee's questionnaire to help in judging whether under the city commission form of government, in the case of a small city (I mean a city of 100,000 people or under), whether the city commission, giving all its time to city government, would form an effective city planning commission itself. That is what is happening in Sacramento today. Sacramento has a city government with a city commission of five men, which has constituted itself the city planning authority and is work-

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ing with great smoothness and success in getting plans made and in carrying out promptly everything approved.

DR. WHITTEN:

First, as to the question of the differentiation of powers of the art jury and the city planning commission in the case of (1) a design of a park and (2) the location of public buildings. The art jury should have no control over the design of a park. A park design should be controlled by the park commissioner, subject to approval as to certain features by the city plan authority. In the case of the location of public buildings the question of differentiation of powers is more difficult. The city plan authority should have control over the location of a public building. The art commission should have control over the design of the building and its immediate setting or environment.

As regards the commission form of government and a city planning commission, I have no definite information, but my impression would be that in a small city having the commission form of government the commission could act as an effective city planning authority.

The question raised in regard to compensation for buildings within the street lines is very important. The diverse experience of Pennsylvania and New York in this matter is interesting. In New York City for a long time the law provided there should be no compensation for buildings erected within the lines of the street subsequent to the mapping of the street. The New York court upheld this method. Subsequently, however, a new constitution was adopted with the usual guaranties of property rights. A new case came before the courts, and under the guaranties contained in the new constitution the disallowance of damages for buildings within the street lines was held to be invalid. It is interesting to note that the Pennsylvania decision upholding the power to deny compensation for buildings within street lines refers to the first New York case

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as an authority on this subject, but makes no reference to the subsequent New York case which reversed the former policy. I wish Mr. Thomas Adams were here so that he could inform us how this particular matter is treated in carrying out the Town Planning Act of Great Britain. It seems to me that some extension of our city planning powers so as to include a procedure similar to that of the English Town Planning Act is necessary in order to secure adherence to the street lines laid down by the city plan.

Mr. Adams has raised the question of a tentative plan versus a final plan. It is admitted by all, however, that in the case of a great city it is necessary to start with a tentative plan for the entire metropolitan district. The complete final plan for a great city cannot be adopted at any one time. It must be taken up, considered and adopted in sections. Before the final plan for any particular section is adopted there should, however, be a tentative comprehensive plan for the entire area; otherwise there can be no correlation between the different sections.

Mr. Baker has brought to our attention the important work of the National Municipal League in drafting a municipal program and including as a part thereof a section on city planning. I believe that the Committee on Administrative Procedure of this Conference could very well coöperate with Mr. Baker in this important work. The Committee on Administrative Procedure should, I think, follow up the work begun at this session with a definite formulation of a comprehensive legislative program for city planning.

MR. JOSEPH JOHNSON, *Philadelphia*:

I have first in mind the question of the comprehensive plan. A comprehensive plan was suggested for Philadelphia, and in the southern part of the city has been worked out and a portion has been confirmed, and we are now waiting to see what is going to come out of it. We are actually on trial at the present time. We have had great

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opposition to it, and the balance of the plan in that section is now up for confirmation with great opposition. We do not know what will happen.

In relation to our parkway from the City Hall to Fairmount Park, the question was raised as to the immediate taking of the property, and because the courts would not allow this they went to the legislature and attempted to have the whole planning system of the city of Philadelphia wiped out, and wiped out immediately. We had to go to the legislature and fight it, and we won out with some little compromise and with a bill that is now before the governor for his signature, which covers parks and parkways as to their taking in the central portion of the city. We still retain our plans as to the street system in the city of Philadelphia, and we can continue to adopt them and add to them.

Also, I wanted to speak about the placing of intermediate streets upon the plan. We have the right to place additional streets upon the plan (intermediate streets). We do place the intermediate streets on the city plan and are rather liberal in our views. We have to be a little liberal to the builder and we have to cater to him to a certain extent. He is the man who is investing his money. Therefore we do not get all of our intermediate streets as we would like to have them. It is a source of a great deal of annoyance and trouble in the city, but we are getting a little more stringent in our rules as to placing these streets, on account of the size of the lot. There has been considerable contention in our board, particularly of late years, a number of members contending that lots should be at least 50 feet in depth.

Our board also has the right to place parks upon the city plan upon receiving authority from council. We place streets on the city plan and confirm them, and the owner waits until such time as the city is financially able to pay for them or they are dedicated.

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MR. J. C. MURPHY, *Louisville:*

There has been a good deal said here about independent commissions. I would like to call your attention to the system that prevails in Louisville. We have the ordinary city government composed of the mayor, aldermen and councilmen, but when any large work is undertaken an independent commission is appointed for that work. We have also continuous commissions, one for governing our parks, another for our libraries. In order to get continuity in the work of these commissions they are generally composed of four men, one appointed each year for a four year term. The mayor is ex officio a member of each of these commissions and has only as much power as any other commissioner and of course no power of veto. He has only the power of voting in case of a tie. Also, to control those commissions, the funds that are supplied to them for carrying on their work is voted by the council. The council in that way controls them, but they act independently in all other respects.

Another point that was raised that I may call attention to. We have a state law which gives the city power over a district within three miles of the city limits for the purpose of platting. The city has a veto power in case the district lies inside of the city limits, the power being exercised by the board of public works. But in districts that are outside of the city but within the three mile limit the veto power is jointly in our board of public works and the judge of our county court, which is the governing body of the district in the county that is outside of the city limits.

No plat can be recorded in our court of record without having received the approval, when it lies inside of the city, of the board of public works; when outside of the city, the board of public works and the county judge jointly.

MR. LOUIS LOTT, *Dayton, Ohio*

In regard to the city commission taking over the functions of the city planning board. As far as I know

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our own city commissioners of Dayton, I have heard their tales of woe from time to time, they are so overburdened with work; and you must remember that these are private business men and devote only a part of their time, and at that a very great part of it for a very small compensation. I am sure I speak for them; if the duty of a town planning board was imposed upon them, they would certainly object. My own opinion about the city planning board is that it would be to the best advantage of all concerned to get the best material, either officially or unofficially, that you happen to have in a city, and as few commissioners as possible to make the thing work right and properly.

MR. A. A. STOUGHTON, *Winnipeg*:

As to the composition of commissions, it may be interesting to know what has been done in Winnipeg. There the commission is composed entirely of men outside of the official circle, except that the city surveyor is a member. Being the custodian of all of the maps and records, it is very convenient to refer to him, and the meetings are held in his office; the members are thus in close touch with the physical plan of the city. The members are chosen for their professions — an engineer, an architect, a real estate man, the president of the Town Planning Association, a former mayor and the city surveyor. The idea is, I think, that any of the city officials is too busy to put his mind on the details of a "plan," although they are always welcome at the meetings. The members of the commission, except the city surveyor, have as their sole municipal function the study and furtherance of the city plan. They keep in close touch with the city officials and go to them constantly, and the latter know what is being done, and the most cordial relations obtain between the commission and the Board of Control and Council and the mayor and others composing our city administration. The commission has no authority; it simply is an advisory body, but it is gradually develop-

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ing a comprehensive plan and is taking up one feature after another, working it out and then submitting it, usually informally, to the officials and finally officially.

In regard to art commissions, we have none, but we were very much gratified recently by having the Board of Control, of its own motion, refer to the plan commission the matter of four bridges for which the city was then making plans and ask the commission to coöperate with the bridge engineer in supplying the architectural treatment of those bridges. A precedent was thus set in the direction of municipal art control, or of including the function, at least temporarily, in the one body connected with the city that is more or less technically and esthetically competent.

MR. OLMSTED:

I should like to go back again to the point which has been touched upon several times before, in regard to the powers of the city planning authority for enforcing the plan. The Pennsylvania method which was touched on by Mr. Johnson is in some respects like the German method. It apparently relies on the police power to prevent erection of buildings on land designated for future use in streets, since no provision is made for compensation until the land is actually put to use by the public, although in the meantime the use of the land is limited just as if an easement had been acquired by the city. In carrying out and enforcing a city planning scheme one must rely upon two powers, the police power and the power of eminent domain. In regard to a great many provisions of a complete city plan it is obvious that they can justly and reasonably be enforced under the police power and without any obligation for the city to compensate individuals for damages. When I say justly and reasonably I am not thinking about constitutional limitations, but about the general sense of justice in the community. You may change constitutional provisions, but as Mr. Adams pointed out the other day,

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you cannot systematically violate the public sense of justice and "get away with it" in a democratic community.

Now we may and we should utilize the police power for placing reasonable limitations upon the height or the extent, the character and the use of buildings upon private land, all property of a given character being subjected to the same control. Other parts of the city plan can be safeguarded in a similar way under the police power. But when we attempt without compensation to prevent a man from building within the limits of a proposed public improvement which is a part of a city plan to be executed at some indefinite time in the future, we are liable, in extreme cases, completely to destroy the value of his property, while indefinitely postponing compensation. The limits of the proposed improvement may include the whole of his property, and the property may have no value except for building purposes. To prevent that man for an indefinite length of time from utilizing that property and to pay him nothing is generally and rightly regarded as confiscation. Whatever the state of the law, even in Pennsylvania, the practice is unfair. I wish to point out that these cases can be equitably dealt with under the power of eminent domain, by the use of betterment assessment — a more extended use than we have been accustomed to, but without any change of principle. In order to preserve its future welfare the city may take an easement covering land included within a proposed public improvement which gives it the right to require the removal, at some future time, of any structures which may have been erected upon the land in question after the acquirement of the easement. For such an easement the owner of the land must in fairness be compensated, but that compensation can and should be distributed over that part of the city the future welfare of which is safeguarded by the taking of that easement, whether it is for a future street or for any other public purpose; and if the owner of the land on which the easement was acquired is

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also the owner of other land in the area of benefit, his assessment may equal the payment to him for the easement.

CHAIRMAN CRAWFORD:

We have had a good deal of experience with this matter in Pennsylvania. All our street extensions have been made under the police power by preventing building within the lines of plotted streets. There has been little or no opposition to it or complaint of it except in a few individual cases. Theoretically I agree with Mr. Olmsted. Owners should not be prevented from using their property or altering it over an indefinite period, and cities are often slow in putting through streets which have been long plotted on a plan. We trace the attempt to wipe out the whole system of city planning in Philadelphia to this restraint on the use of property without compensation. We defeated the attempt by a sort of compromise. The provision now is that a park or parkway in a built-up section may be plotted on our city plan and may stay there for five years, at the end of which time if the city has not acted sooner the land plotted for a park becomes automatically owned by the city. It is purchased and opened. Of course condemnation proceedings may delay the actual conclusion of the matter two or three years more. The act which resulted from this compromise is now before the governor.

MR. ARTHUR C. COMEY, *Cambridge*:

The experience in Massachusetts is rather negative. It bears on this point very directly, though. We have in Massachusetts a building line law which provides for compensation under the power of eminent domain. The only question comes whether the compensation shall be paid at the time the building line is established or when the lot is actually taken; that and several other bad features in the law have resulted in so much mix-up as to when the actual damage is to be assessed that the law has not been used to any great extent. Several cases have been decided

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under it, and it is a valuable proceeding. I think that the matter of condemnation for this purpose is very important, and I believe in it thoroughly. But all those good things have their bad side. The difficulty for most cities would be that if they established a series of building lines of this sort, for instance if they established an entire district and city plan by building lines, if the damages were not assessed until the property was actually taken — or until the building permits were requested, as Dr. Whitten has suggested — the city would not know how far it had attempted to obligate itself and would not know how deeply in its pocket it would have to go at any time to take these properties. And as the city is generally not deemed to be able to bind itself for future years, this principle has been rendered rather difficult of application. On the other hand, if you condemn the right to build at the time you adopt the city plan, you get into a good deal of expenditure for nothing on the surface, simply the right to open up in the future.

The other point I wish to bring up is the matter of state planning and the state supervision of plans. In Massachusetts, as you know, the Homestead Commission is an advisory board as far as planning is concerned. It reports on legislation and assists local boards in so far as it can. It is not an executive commission at the present. The situation is a great deal different from what it is in Detroit or any of the western cities, where there is a large belt outside of the city of rural country or township country. All Massachusetts and all New England are cut up entirely among the organized towns and cities, and each one of those, the larger ones at least, has its own board. Therefore we get a direct conflict. The city of Lawrence, which has 90,000 people, really spreads over neighboring towns, several of them — there are three neighboring towns, one of which has 11,000 and its own planning board — finds it is absolutely unable to control its own development outside of city limits. Therefore it seems very desirable that we should have some coördinating body, particularly

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in Massachusetts, which has a very high density of population. Further, ultimately in a state like Massachusetts at least, where the density is second only to Rhode Island and less than but two of the smallest European countries, we should have a state plan to which town plans would conform. We have fragments of state plans for highways and some of those things, but there is no coördination between departments. The whole matter should be coördinated, particularly in the matter of highways and state parks. A very valuable report came out last year, the Connecticut State Park System, and I recommend to those who have not seen it that they should read it. It treats the subject very broadly and very practically. It shows that in Connecticut, which is the third state in the Union in density, unless they move very quickly the people will have absolutely no place to go for recreation.

HON. EDWARD M. BASSETT:

I presume that the state of New York is about as conservative as any state along this important matter of preventing the use for private purposes of land within the lines of a plotted street, and when you think how far that conservative position goes under the decisions of our courts, you can see how we would all wish to be as far along as Pennsylvania in the willingness of its courts to recognize some sanctity to those places laid out within mapped lines. Mr. Crawford properly puts much emphasis upon the need of some such safeguard. In the state of New York the entire future city plan is imperiled by the lack of it.

Let us say that an outlying part of the Borough of Queens needs a boulevard. It is put on the city map, but since all mapped streets have no recognized sanctity, it is an invitation for builders to erect their buildings within the mapped lines in order that the opening of the street will bring a condemnation award to them out of which they hope to make a profit. I have in mind today in Queens a location where an important street joins a boule-

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vard running to Rockaway, and as the street is not open all the way to the boulevard, the builder is erecting some structures right in the course of the proper extension of the street to the boulevard. Our courts have been very firm in preserving full right of use of private property. There is a group of us in New York, some in Buffalo, Syracuse and some of our other large cities pressing toward the accomplishment of some relief either by interpretation of the constitution or by amendment of it.

MR. B. MOSES, *Scranton, Pa.*:

We have in Scranton adopted a plan which works very well that no street can be constructed and no building erected until referred to the planning commission. The planning commission recommends to the council and the council almost unanimously does what we recommend. When the commission was established in Scranton two years ago we had only small playgrounds around the school-houses, but inside of three months we will have one public playground for which \$25,000 has been appropriated. In the matter of heights of buildings, we have one building in the city 125 feet high, the next one is going to be 150 feet, but that is the limit. No one can build a building of any kind in our city higher than 150 feet.

REMARKS AT THE CLOSING DINNER

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CHARLES MOORE, *Toastmaster*

Chairman Commission of Fine Arts

PRESIDENT WILSON, catching an apt phrase from Robert Louis Stevenson, has spoken of "the forward-looking men." The phrase applies most happily to city planners, for of all men they work for the future; and plan as largely as they may, their plans will be too small before they are finished.

I am here to speed the parting guests. We have enjoyed having you here, and it is melancholy indeed to think that when the sun rises tomorrow morning we shall have left with us only Mr. Veiller, Mr. Ihlder and Miss Chadsey. Tomorrow they will have put off their Cinderella robes and appear in the garb of ordinary housing experts.

This Conference has established new records. The first record was broken by Mr. Lewis, an engineer who showed a genuine appreciation of architecture in matters of practice. The engineer usually feels that he builds the structure and then turns it over to the architect to paste the ornaments on it.

Mr. Clipston Sturgis broke the second record. Appearing in his official capacity as president of the American Institute of Architects, Mr. Sturgis urged the exercise of common sense in city planning. His plea sounded like the first page of Descartes' "Treatise on Method," where we are told that everybody thinks he possesses common sense, and yet that quality is unique in the world. Mr. Shurtleff should make record of this in red ink on his slides, then Detroit would have the first place in something.

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And yet in spite of this fine record, you have come short of what was expected of you. When Mayor Marx departed, he said that he was leaving the Conference in Mr. Dust's hands with the confident expectation that by the time he returned the Belle Isle Bridge would be finished by this Conference. And Walter Campbell is disappointed that you did not put the fish in Isle à la Pêche.

You have been most diligent in your labors. Mr. Ninde and Mr. Ford have started a sales department that will place city planning on the bargain counter frequented by every editor in the land. You subdivided East Boston and Fort Wayne while the steamer "Ste. Claire" was subdividing Lake Erie — probably with equal results.

I dare say that you are somewhat disappointed in your visit to Detroit. Perhaps you were expecting that the subdividers would get a chance at one of those Ford surpluses of which you have heard so much. Don't go away with any misapprehension. A part of that surplus you have this evening consumed, along with those of the Packard, Cadillac and Chalmers, to say nothing of the Denby Truck. I hope they will agree with you as well as they seem to agree with our friend John Anderson, whose smiling face we welcome.

Seriously speaking, you have done us good. You have come at a time when the people of Detroit have large problems to solve. You stand for right solutions of municipal problems, and your influence will be felt not only here in Detroit, but throughout Michigan, whose cities are now taking up the task of fitting the municipalities to meet the commercial demands forced upon them by manifest destiny. So we have appreciated your coming, and we hope you will come again, when we have the new center of arts and letters, the new bridge to the island and the new Scott fountain and statue.

When a young man was introduced to one of the prime ministers of England as a very modest young man, the minister said: "Ah, yes, and tell me please what the young

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man has done to be modest about." That young man had not taken up city planning, because all city planners have something to be modest about. When Mayor Mitchel was introduced to the audience in San Francisco the other day, he said that it was said that he was the best exhibit that New York City had at the exposition. That means that the old days, the days of Tweed and others of that kind in New York City, have passed, and that for the most part — we will not say anything about occasional lapses — but for the most part that city is coming into the hands of experts, and a number of those experts are here tonight, and among them is Mr. Bassett, whom I am going to call on as the first speaker of the evening. Mr. Bassett, who knows all about the heights of buildings and a good deal of how to get them regulated.

HON. EDWARD M. BASSETT, *Chairman Heights of Buildings Commission, New York City:*

This has been a most orderly conference. Things have gone along in the way that was fixed beforehand. All were here. President Olmsted was here with that beautiful crushed strawberry necktie, that we would miss if he did not bring it along, because that sets the pace. Mr. Ford down in New York once in a while appears at our city planning meetings in that fashion. We admire it. It is a bright spot in the landscape. The Three Guardsmen are here, Veiller, Crawford and Bennett. Brockway and I have been trying to break into that sacred band for the last two or three years without success. I made another try at a subterranean restaurant in this town, but looking at their well fed proportions, I suggested that it might be Thirty Years After. And I think that now I am doomed to outer darkness.

Thomas Adams is here — with his wife this time. We always want you to come with Mr. Adams, Mrs. Adams. Nelson Lewis and Alfred Bettman, Ihlder, Nolen, Goodrich, Leavitt, Mulford Robinson of Rochester, Pond of

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Chicago, all are here. But Purdy is not here, and Purdy is what reminds me that this is such an orderly conference.

It was a little more than two years ago that Mr. Purdy telephoned me: "Bassett, they want you to prepare a paper." Oh, I was innocent. "They want you to prepare a paper on the subject of title to land for public uses, in a typical city"; that is as near as I can remember it. It was one of those four hour subjects. Well I prepared the paper, and it took me about two months. I came on with the thing copied. I was told by Crawford that I could have just ten minutes. I said: "What do I do in ten minutes?" "Well," Crawford said, "you can't read your paper; all you can do is just speak the gist of it." Well then I went to Shurtleff and I said: "What shall I do?" "Why," he said, "you just speak it and take all the time you want." Purdy was the presiding officer with the gavel. I went at it to speak it. I could have read it in twenty minutes if they would let me; I tried to speak it in ten minutes, and when I jogged along for three quarters of an hour, Purdy got impatient and nudged me to sit down. I dodged him once or twice, and then I sat down, and what do you think happened? Crawford was to be the first agitator of my subject. He held up a watch just like this. I had pulled out my watch that way and looked at it once in a while, so that the audience would know that I was cognizant of the time. Crawford pulled his watch out and he said: "I, too, have a watch." "*But*," he said, "*I am going to respect my watch.*"

Well that was not so bad. I could have stood that. But then he went on to say that the previous speaker had dwelt on the constitution. "These are not subjects for the constitution, gentlemen," he said. "The way to do is to disregard the constitution and go ahead and get results." Well that made me feel bad, because in New York we people who had been trying to do city planning had learned to have some regard for the appellate courts, be-

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cause some way or other you cannot put things through those New York appellate courts very easily; and Crawford did get a jolt after a little while when he went back to Philadelphia. He was so proud of that Sulzburger decision that had disregarded the constitution. But the appellate courts got back at Crawford, and overturned the Sulzburger decision, and I notice that our friend Crawford is here this year in a chastened spirit. He has n't tried to hold the clock on me and the constitution.

Well I am used to quiet affairs, orderly conferences like this one. I live in Flatbush. Out in Flatbush we shovel our walks in the winter and we make our gardens in the summer, and we are quite different from those folks like Veiller, Goodrich and Ihlder, who live up in that marble palace district of Central Manhattan. I am not used to such strenuous times as we had in Chicago. If we had a quarter of an hour between sessions, George Hooker would say: "Come around to the City Club and we will have a conference on housing," or Bennett would get us out to see a street; and after I had been in the swirl for three days — and wanted nothing so much as to get to the quiet of Flatbush — as a final dénouement I lost my hat. My friend Moses of Scranton reminded me of that the first day I came to this town and asked me whether I had had serious trouble hanging on to my hat since the Chicago convention. When I struck the train that night, I was in a damaged condition.

Well in Detroit everything is so orderly. We started out on that automobile ride. I sat with the chauffeur in our car. As we slipped by things on the road, we came to a grand palace where an army of workmen were landscape gardening, and the chauffeur said he owned that. We came by a skyscraper downtown, well, nearly as big as the Woolworth Building. He said he owned that. Pretty soon I learned he made about a million dollars a day. I had just told him that if he ever got out of a job, he could come down to our town, and we would give him two dollars a day,

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he was such a good chauffeur. That was Kresge of Detroit with branches in every large city.

You people in Detroit, you take us visitors around with millionaire chauffeurs, and the town is ours. Campbell takes us out in his big boat; and after the town has been given to us, and all the Detroit River, he tries to give us Canada. But, after deciding that he was going to give us Canada, he found that he did not have clearance papers, so he could not deliver the key.

I bring a greeting from New York to Detroit. The hospitality that you have shown to this Conference is overwhelming. Some of us have studied your problems as well as we could in a few days. New York has been through many of those problems. Every great industrial city must have regard to the welfare of its workingmen. It is economy. If a city gets five million people, as New York City is, and if a workingman is to have a family of five children and a wife — I will say a wife and five children — yes, the wife comes before the five children, that is why I changed the location of the wife.

If a workingman is to have a wife and five children, he has got to be in a nearby place that will have a low rent, or else he has got to travel, in order to get a low rent, two or three hours of his waking time. That becomes a great problem in New York City. If a workingman must pay high rent, he cannot bring up a family in the crowded downtown districts of New York City near his work; and if he has to travel three hours every day, that is a drawback to his efficiency and he is worth less to his employer.

Detroit can distribute its population in sunny homes within a brief distance of the workingman's place of work and at a low fare; this makes efficiency in manufacturing, and also helps to produce the families that will carry on the future work of the city. Such cities have an advantage over great cities like New York or London or Philadelphia. New York has to build subways at enormous expense in order to house its workingmen like Detroit.

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Now Detroit is getting to that point where it is one of the great cities of the world, and where it must more regard this matter of the welfare of the workingman's family than it did when it was a small city. Workingmen are living in crowded rooms right here in Detroit; and the result will be bad for Detroit if it does not do something to help workingmen's families to spread out in sunny homes, where they can live near the earth, within a brief ride of their working places, and at a low fare.

There is the problem that Detroit will soon have to face. These are halcyon days in Detroit. Your great factories are at the acme of their efficiency. Workingmen are near. But let your city increase twice what it is today and you will find that you will perhaps be outstripped by some smaller cities unless you provide for your workingmen.

We congratulate Detroit on its magnificent position. But Detroit must profit by the lessons of the great cities of the world. London for forty years has been striving at enormous expense to get its workingmen into sunny homes, to abolish its depressed localities that have devoured families. And Detroit must do those things which will make this a wholesome, sunny city. We have been discussing these things upstairs, the opening up of diagonal streets, improved methods of transit, the better utilization of the water front, the best size of a city block. All these things have a relation to making a city a wholesome city for the future. And in a broad sense that is city planning work, the adaptation of a large group of human beings to their environment, so that they will be happy and efficient, so that they will increase and multiply and be as wholesome as country districts are. Until a city can do for the human race what small villages and country districts do for families, cities will not be performing their proper function. They will be devourers of families.

Mr. McAneny, the acting mayor of New York, desired me to express his best wishes to all of his friends at this conference. Up to last week he hoped and expected to come,

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but on account of having his own duties in addition to those of the mayor, and being overwhelmed with work, he was compelled to stay away. Mayor Mitchel was not there when we left New York, otherwise he would have sent his respects to this conference and the people of Detroit.

But allow me, in closing, to express our sincerest thanks for the hospitality of Detroit and to wish an even grander future for this city as a great industrial city, the home city of happy and healthy families.

TOASTMASTER MOORE:

One hundred and three years ago there appeared for the first time in the then century-old city of Detroit, Captain Lewis Cass from Ohio. He was our governor for fifteen years and left his impress not only upon the territory of Michigan, but also on the whole Northwest. He is still our first citizen. A year ago one bearing the name of Cass, a relative or at least a connection of the captain, came to Detroit and captured our public library competition and came again a year ago and captured our Scott fountain competition. We are very glad to welcome him here tonight as a future resident of Detroit, at least temporarily.

Mr. Gilbert, when he came to Detroit, was not altogether familiar with the City Planning Conference. He asked: "What is the constitution and what are the by-laws?" Mr. Olmsted said: "There is no constitution and there are no by-laws." Mr. Gilbert said: "That is the kind of an organization that I want to belong to. I would like to be president of such an organization as that." Mr. Olmsted immediately replied: "Why, all you have to do is to substitute your name for mine on the note at the bank; then you can become president of this organization."

MR. CASS GILBERT, *Member Commission of Fine Arts*:

I know why Detroit succeeds. It is led by the gifted imagination and counseled by the silver tongue of Charles Moore.

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If I went back in the history of city planning in America, I would do as someone else has done, ascribe the parentage of the whole thing to Major L'Enfant. But I would have to come down rapidly over a considerable stretch of time to the period when — and I speak seriously now — when, counseled by your fellow townsman, under the patronage of your great Senator McMillan, the Washington Park Commission was appointed and the plan of the city of Washington, revised, reorganized and embellished, became possible under the guidance of Burnham, McKim, St. Gaudens & Olmsted, and there at the helm and close in counsel was your fellow townsman, Charles Moore.

So if my introduction to this audience is not fortunate, if I have to come to you under any guise at all, it will be under the guise and mask of a friend of Charles Moore, and I am proud of it.

Now this imaginary conversation of which he has told you as between Olmsted and me is one of the most brilliant feats of a highly constructive mind that I have ever known, and the curious part of it is that the conversation did actually take place. But I made one condition, that there should be no rules of professional ethics that would invite charges of unprofessional conduct. They refused to make that condition, and I promptly withdrew my candidacy.

My next neighbor here, Mr. Kirchner, in our conversation tonight has stated a fundamental truth, and it is surprising to me that I had n't thought of it before — well it does n't surprise me after all that I did n't think of it, because none of us think of fundamental truths very often; they are elusive. I cannot say it in the eloquent tones which he probably would use if he were addressing you, but this is what he said: "*The architectural condition of our cities is the price we have paid for liberty!*" Said humorously, it is nevertheless a very profound observation. If you will stop to think of it, private enterprise and private liberty and private rights and a subdivided block and a

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little area of land built up close, and all that results from the fact that a man of modest means owns one piece of property, and a family embarrassed by a poorly paying estate another, and the next some great millionaire who can afford to do anything he wishes, make a condition of individual liberty of action which produces a sky line that is as varied and interesting as the history of the individual property owners themselves. Interesting and picturesque yes, but seldom well organized and rarely beautiful.

Yet out of that condition have we to organize and create civic order and civic embellishment. Our cities have grown, and grown enormously; we forget how fast they have grown, and we constantly refer to their rapid growth and brag about it and forget what it really means.

I was looking over — in order to prepare myself for some kind of a speech, and did not succeed in doing it — I was looking over a book on town planning written in England. I forget who wrote it, it was too big. But I remember one statement to the effect that Philadelphia at the time of the Civil War — I take my English friend's statement as correct — had 40,000 inhabitants and it was the largest city in the United States, by which I suppose it means that it was larger than New York.

(Mr. Olmsted interjects "The Revolutionary War.")

I accept Mr. Olmsted's correction; let us go back to the Revolutionary War. It is only about one hundred and thirty or forty years ago, and what is forty or fifty thousand people between friends or fifty years in the course of town planning? Within a period so short as that the entire business of building cities has grown up in this country. And we are confronted now with the situation where a vast proportion of our people live under urban conditions, and in a sort of a faltering way it has gradually penetrated into the minds of men now in active life that something has got to be done about it, and various

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methods of solving these problems, such as have been suggested by our distinguished friend Mr. Bassett in the housing of workingmen, have come to be considered, and various citizens have entered upon various projects for meeting these practical needs. In New York, where I pass a portion of my time, they have been trying to solve the question of congestion by means of rapid transit. The net result so far has been that they never have caught up with the rapid transit scheme; and the more people they are able to take out of a center into the country, the more people they are able to bring back from the country into the center, and the net result is that the congestion is greater than it was before. We cannot always solve such problems, sometimes they solve themselves. But we should examine and study them and help as we can.

We are trying to solve these problems in various ways. We will not solve them all by any one of the ways that have been proposed. Rapid transit will not solve them. The zone system will not solve them. But various efforts will bring out a solution. Whatever the final solution of housing and transportation, it will be found to be based on sound civic economics.

No city under our form of government can provide for its embellishment except incidentally until it has paid its bills for operation. Each city, with the single exception of the national capital, must pay its own way or create its own debts and pay the interest charges that run against those debts. And the only way that can be done is by taxation, and when taxation rises to a point that it becomes confiscatory, the operation will cease, because the income will disappear by reason of those who pay the income being driven from the occupancy. I do not want to be too technical about it, but it begins to seem to me that our great civic planning enterprises must ally themselves a little more closely with the practical conditions of municipal management and municipal finance.

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I think perhaps it is not the best place, at a dinner, where humor and wit and merriment should prevail, to introduce so serious a subject. It perhaps should be discussed only in the hall where the debates have been going on. But it does seem to me that these great and very desirable objects which we have in view may be touched on here for only a moment. We are advocating a cause which should interest all good citizens. We are advocating the making of better cities and making them better organized, better planned, more beautiful, more acceptable to live in, with better housing for rich and poor alike; and while providing better utilities for sanitation, transportation, education and health, offering also opportunities for sane recreation and enjoyment, art galleries, libraries, museums, music halls and all that makes civic life attractive and desirable. If those things are to be accomplished, they can only be accomplished by making the means meet the end.

I anticipate that no city government of wisdom and sanity would for a moment hesitate to carry out the reasonable plans for city improvement which our friends design, if the means to do so were available.

Why, in New York, Riverside Drive would be extended away up the Hudson at once if they had the money; diagonal avenues would undoubtedly be cut. Small public parks and playgrounds, which are so very necessary in that crowded community — and will be here if they are not already — would be provided at once if they had the means. But they must first provide for the great need of carrying on the city government, with its police, its schools, its street cleaning, its various necessary administrative functions. I have been told that if New York were governed from the standpoint of efficiency, regardless of politics, all these things could be done and there would be ample funds left over for civic development.

City planning goes hand in hand with good city government and means good local city government in all departments.

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This matter of city planning is a very old one. It is so old that it is hard to find the origin of it. Romulus and Remus quarreled over it. The Greeks practiced it. At Syracuse Girgenti and many old Greek cities there are frequent evidences of it. Babylon's hanging gardens are proverbial. Its parks and pleasure grounds are described by Herodotus. In Egypt and in Lydia kings and potentates gave thought to such matters and recorded with pride their accomplishment of great city plan projects. Solomon the wise was himself a great city planner. The Roman emperors like Hadrian were famous for their great civic works, and Napoleon, most practical of men, dreamed a new Paris, while Washington and Jefferson, looking to the future of our country, wisely gave thought and practical expression to these matters. And no doubt these discussions which we hold today were indulged in then. They were all dreamers, just as we are dreamers, and they dreamed sometimes in a great big way, looking out into the future, so much larger than the mere practical man would think possible.

The plans that are made for today are always too small for tomorrow, and the plans that we may make for tomorrow are always too big for today.

And so we must solve these problems by so devising our plans that those things which are to be done tomorrow shall be done in tomorrow's order and with tomorrow's means; that those things which are of today must be done with the means which are at hand today.

A city is a mechanism. It is a complicated mechanism, it has parts and must work together. The buildings are only the machinery that makes the land usable, and they are all temporary. Even the best of them are temporary. The largest of them are only temporary. And it seems strange when we say that, for speaking in terms of the lifetime of a man they are fairly permanent. But in the lifetime of a city they are very, very temporary; and when that machinery which we call a city, or that cog in the

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wheel which we call a building; becomes obsolete and its parts are worn out or are small for the function it must perform, then it behooves us and our communities, our city governments, to find a way to renew it and to enlarge it to meet our ever growing needs, and in so doing to act with minds big enough and with hearts courageous enough to look forward into the grand future which this country is sure to have.

And no American city need ever be afraid to look that future in the face with courage, with determination and with zeal. Your city here in Detroit is one of many great cities. You are not alone in your prosperity. You are among the first. You are in the front rank, but your problem is not the only problem. It is one of many problems. As you solve it others will solve their problems, and they will always be solved in America with courage, with intelligence and with enthusiasm. But these problems of civic improvement never will be solved at all unless they are solved with common sense.

TOASTMASTER MOORE:

None of us who were at Toronto last year will forget the gracious dignity with which the conference was welcomed to the Dominion by the Governor General of Canada, the Duke of Connaught. His speech at the beginning of the conference, his gracious hospitality during its sessions, were the thread of gold that ran through the whole meeting. We ought to have had more of our Canadian brethren than we have had at this conference, but owing to exigencies quite beyond their control, they are with us only in small numbers.

We welcome most heartily those who are here. Mr. Adams, if he has enjoyed a warm welcome, can understand that a part of it belongs to him as the representative of the Dominion of Canada. Another part of it, and a large part of it too, belongs to him personally, because he has been found to be a friend and a brother. He has been in-

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initiated into the mysteries of the General Committee — where Mr. Veiller passes the hat! It gives us great pleasure to welcome Mr. Adams, and we shall hear from him as the representative of Canada.

MR. THOMAS ADAMS, *Town Planning Adviser Commission of Conservation of Canada:*

I assure you that it is a great honor to be here as representing Canada, as it is a great privilege to be here amongst American citizens who are working side by side with us in dealing with the great problem of city growth. We are trying to solve conditions of a very similar character on both sides of the boundary line which separates us.

The question raised by Mr. Gilbert regarding the difficulties of the financial situation confronts everyone who has to deal with these problems. We are called dreamers, but we are dreamers only in the sense that we are trying to apply some imagination to the practical problems we are confronted with, and I do not think that necessarily means that we are not trying to provide a practical foundation to all the dreams which we have.

I remember well in my early connection with the movement that the architect and the engineer, men like Mr. Lewis and Mr. Bennett, representing the two principal professions interested in town planning, had their own particular notions as to what their position should be in regard to the planning of a city. I had a great deal to do with the planning of some of these cities where we had the engineer working side by side with the architect. I remember one occasion when the engineer was asked to sink an artesian well to supply a garden city with water, and the architect came along and said he objected to the erection of a galvanized iron pumping shed, but he would accept it if it was painted in green, so as to harmonize with the surrounding trees. The engineer replied: "Well I don't object if you put up a notice on the shed to the effect that the engineer is not responsible for the paint."

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Now I think that rather suggests that both have their separate functions, and they ought to keep to those functions. The engineer has to do with that part of city planning which is concerned with the laying down of the great arterial highways leading from our cities, the laying down of our systems of drainage, our systems of sewerage and our water supply, which come in at the earlier stages of our city development.

We are trying and have tried to harmonize in Great Britain the duties of both of these professions so that they will work together and yet not unduly overlap or cause friction between each other. In that connection we have established in Great Britain a Town Planning Institute, which has four classes of members. In that institute we have as members the chief municipal engineers in Great Britain connected with town planning. There are many leading architects like Professor Adshead, the town planning professor of London University, Mr. Lanchester, Mr. Unwin, Sir Arthur Webb and other names which are familiar to architects here. There are surveyors and landscape architects like Mr. Mawson and myself, and there are lawyers like Mr. Abbott, Mr. Birkett and others, who have devoted themselves especially to this problem.

These four professions have combined together to form the Town Planning Institute. I mention that as an indication of the widespread character of this problem we are dealing with. We have to approach it not as if any one man could deal with all the problems of city development, but as something in which there is room for coöperation of these varied professions.

Now, sir, in Canada we are trying to deal with this problem in a way which I think will help you to appreciate the difficulties mentioned by Mr. Gilbert, who had just spoken on the financial problem. We take the attitude that town planning does not mean spending more, but means spending more wisely. We think we can save money and not increase expenditure by town planning.

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It has been said that San Francisco could have saved \$26,000,000 if it had been planned according to the topography of the land instead of in the rectangular way in which it has been laid out. Other cities have used hydraulic means to drive through mountain sides, because the streets have been laid out without any regard to the physical feature of the land. Liverpool, on the other side of the Atlantic, has spent £10,000,000, or \$50,000,000, to remedy evils in development, evils which have been handed down to it from the past. London has in about fifty years spent \$150,000,000 to deal with congestion and other difficulties which have been created from want of planning.

Therefore we approach this question not as a means of adding to taxation, but of saving it. It may not be that it is a means of immediate saving, but certainly it is a means of securing a sound and profitable investment.

Now, sir, I sometimes find myself in conflict with my town planning friends when I say that we have got to deal with this thing in a practical way. I won't yield to anyone in a matter of having idealism, in a matter of trying to secure the best results from the point of view of esthetic effect in regard to city planning, although I have some regard for that philosophy expressed by Aristotle to the effect that beauty is the purgation of superfluity, that simplicity represents the highest form of beauty. On some of our mountain sides, where we see the little cottages built in timber with fine proportion and admirable setting, seeming almost to be part of the landscape, we see that form of beauty. Some of these simple artificial effects, united with the beautiful in nature, make pictures of which this continent may well be proud. We have some grander results in the simple beauty of these rural landscapes than we get in the classic façades which are found in the streets of our Torontos or Montreals and some of our larger cities. Excellent in themselves, some of these fine architectural buildings are designed and erected without regard to their surroundings. That is where the architect can help us so

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much, although he is very largely the prey of the client who employs him. The old Greeks set their beautiful and dignified buildings on the heights which dominated their cities. We borrow their architecture and place fine classic structures among our skyscrapers, where they form part of a group of incongruous rows of buildings in closely crowded streets. Perhaps that applies more to Canada than to the United States. But in that respect, at any rate, there is immediate room for the work of the architect in saving us from the evils of misplaced genius.

Now, sir, I would like to indicate one or two directions in which we think we are going to solve this problem of financial difficulty in Canada by means of town planning. I represent the Commission of Conservation of Canada. The word "conservation" suggests what we are. Our object is to conserve national resources. We have the same problem as you have here in the increase of urban population. In 1871 Canada had 14 per cent of her population in cities and today we have 50 per cent. These cities have grown without proper plans. In connection with that growth there has been a great deal of speculation in land. There has been uncontrolled subdivision of land, along with an undesirable system of fixing values for assessment purposes. Some cities are committed to public improvements far in excess of the immediate revenue producing value of the land and the buildings in these cities. Some of our western cities in Canada are subdivided to the extent necessary to provide for the whole present population of the Dominion.

With regard to one of these cities I estimated that if the city grew as rapidly in the future as it had done in the past, and it has grown very rapidly, if I had been the fortunate person who had bought the subdivision which was most remote from the center of that town at \$500 an acre, and I held that land and was the unfortunate individual who was the last to sell it, I should have to get half a million dollars to pay me compound interest on the investment.

That is one of our difficulties. They are difficulties com-

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mon to both of our countries. These are financial problems that you can help to solve with proper town planning. Town planning ought to be a means of exercising foresight, and with all deference to Mr. Moore, common sense, in regard to these matters, so that we shall not only secure beauty, as we can afford to spend a little extra here and there in securing it, but that we may be able to protect future generations from the social evils that have been handed down to us.

We should not pay too much regard to that aspect of city planning which is confined to the replanning of existing conditions. I mean we should not confine our attention to that aspect to the exclusion of the others. In Detroit you are very much limited in what you can do in the existing city, because of the financial and other conditions and the difficulties which would be created by increasing the present obligations of the taxpayer. But that does not mean that Detroit is prevented from securing, with all the undeveloped land in the city, proper safeguards by regulation, so that its unbuilt upon areas shall be developed in a healthy manner for the future; so that those who come after will be in a position to say that they are saved the expense of replanning. All this expense of pulling down buildings to secure wide arteries, for which we blame want of foresight on the part of previous generations, will still have to be incurred in fifty years in respect of the open land in this city if we do not plan it now. I will put it in another form. Sometimes the town planner is faced with this argument: "You are fifteen years too late. Why did n't you come along before Mr. Ford found out the way to manufacture a cheap motor, and why did n't you plan Highland Park before he brought all those thousands of men into that district?" That argument will be used fifty years hence, as it is being used today. We cannot go back and collect spilt milk, but we can look forward and avoid its being spilt in future. That is our problem just as much as altering existing conditions, and it is a problem which

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we can deal with without increased expenditure. We say with regard to this matter in Canada that we will have to deal with the existing conditions, that is, with areas already developed, gradually as we can afford it. We will have to widen the street that is already built upon as our revenue will enable us to do so by a gradual process. We get architectural advice and engineering advice as to what the best thing is to do, but let us deal with that gradually. But meanwhile, by means of town planning legislation, we will plan new areas so as to prevent the future necessity of costly replanning. In other words, we are seeking to prevent future evils by comprehensive schemes which will cost us very little and to cure existing evils by a gradual process. Prevention is much cheaper than cure. I venture to say in some of our large cities, in Toronto and Montreal for instance, that the cost of curing existing evils is almost beyond us. But the cost of preventing bad development in future in our suburbs and in our smaller cities, in places that have grown up in the last ten years, in places like Ojibway on the other side of the water, which may possibly grow up in the next ten years, will be trifling, considering the great benefits to be derived. We are getting the power by legislation to lay down the planning for the future, and we have sufficient optimism, as I know you have sufficient optimism, to believe that all the cities have not yet reached the stage when they are going to stand still, but they are going to grow as much in the future as they have in the past.

If you believe your cities are growing and if you believe that you have by intelligence and by your study of this question arrived at certain conclusions regarding what should be done in connection with new developments, surely the right thing to do, even if you are face to face with the difficulty of altering existing conditions, is to obtain power through your federal and state governments to enable you to deal with those new developments in an intelligent way and with the application of science and common sense.

We have 66 foot streets as the minimum for the whole

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of Ontario on the other side of the river. It would be just as sensible to prescribe that every sewer must be of the same diameter. A street ought to be designed for the purpose for which it is going to be used, and the main artery, in these days of the motor car, should be much wider than the short residence street leading to a few houses.

We as town planners have to tell those who manage our cities and towns that the width of a street is a matter to be determined according to the purpose for which the street is required, and we are in a position to advise them what that width should be, so as to save money now both in local improvements and in expensive replanning in future.

The question of fire protection is an important one for town planners. In Canada we pay ten times as much for fire insurance as they do in some countries in Europe. We are carrying that burden upon our shoulders of which we could save a considerable part by proper regulation with regard to the character, the placing and the construction of buildings and to the distance between the buildings. A proper town planning scheme would provide for the location, construction and placing of buildings which would secure considerable reduction in fire losses and therefore in fire premiums.

With regard to other matters of a similar character we could save large sums of money under properly considered schemes. If some of our new cities in Canada, and some of yours in the States, were to construct the sidewalks, pavements and other improvements as they should be constructed for the whole of the areas of these cities, they would be face to face with a bankrupt condition. That is because these cities have not been planned with proper regard to the revenue producing value of the properties erected within them.

With regard to the housing question referred to by Mr. Bassett, that should be considered not only from the standpoint of securing pleasant environment, but also from the standpoint of the commercial value of efficient

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labor. We pay in Canada about \$250,000,000 a year in wages to our employees in factories. The last ten years our factories have increased by about 5000 in number. What is the principal raw material of these industries? It is the efficiency of the human factor which we have to use as the means of making those industries successful and putting our products on the world's market. You have a splendid example in Detroit of the value of increasing the efficiency of labor, and you know that when anyone comes to your country you make a point of having him bring a health certificate with him so that you are certain he will be not only a good citizen, but a self-supporting one.

I will give an illustration of another point. In Ottawa a man who pays a moderate rent will be paying \$33 a year in taxes. His children are being educated. Assume that he has four children. They are costing the community \$200 a year for education alone — much more in actual money than he is giving to it. Therefore a large portion of the benefit which we may derive from that man's labor and from the labor of his children has to be put against that loss. To maintain healthy conditions of life for that man and his family is to help in making him self-supporting and not a burden on the community, and also in securing that his children will grow up into healthy citizens. We are paying in hard cash for healthy and efficient labor under these conditions; why then are we so indifferent about the conditions in which our laborers are housed? I would urge that town planning which has regard to the health of the people as a primary consideration is a matter which we are required to deal with in order that we may save money. Both your country and mine are largely made up of pioneers who have built up their wealth and prosperity on this continent. We give them liberty, one of those great democratic privileges which have helped to make these nations great. Town planning will not curtail liberty, but only the excesses of liberty.

We are citizens of great countries which have succeeded

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in making wealth and in using science for creating and building up great industries. Let us also endeavor to use that science and enterprise for the still greater work of securing the amelioration of social conditions of our people, so that the United States or Canada may be able to claim, in the march of civilization, that they have not only been great in wealth and powerful among the nations of the world, but that they have paid proper regard to the home life of the people and left behind them a priceless heritage of healthy manhood and womanhood as their contribution to the civilization of the future.

TOASTMASTER MOORE:

In carrying out my duties as toastmaster I should feel it incumbent upon me to defend Mr. Crawford, if I did not know that he was able to take care of himself, so I will merely tell in introducing him one of Frank Miles Day's stories about the Philadelphian who was going home very late one night and said to the policeman: "Is this Chestnut Street or is it Wednesday?"

ANDREW WRIGHT CRAWFORD, ESQ.:

I was much interested in Mr. Bassett's reference to my watch, and in his objections to my use of it. A tenderfoot out West happened into a poker den and watched one of the hands that was being played. Alongside of him was a big bruiser watching the same hand. Presently it became the turn of the man whose hand they were watching to deal, and the tenderfoot saw him give four aces from the bottom of the pack to his own hand. He whispered to the bruiser: "See that?" "See what?" "That man took four aces from the bottom of the pack and dealt them to himself." "Well, it's his turn, ain't it?" At the conference two years ago I thought Bassett would talk so long that I would not have a turn.

It used to be thought that Philadelphia was not as strenuous as New York, but the shoe is on the other foot now.

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Mr. Lewis told me of an experience he had in New York with Mr. John C. Trautwine, one of our eminent Philadelphia engineers. Mr. Trautwine and Mr. Lewis were standing on a street corner downtown in New York a few months ago, when a horse car came by, and Trautwine turned to Lewis and said reflectively: "No wonder Philadelphia used to be called slow!"

It is twenty years and more since we had horse cars in Philadelphia. The last two decades have indeed seen many changes.

Twenty years ago pessimism with regard to American municipal government was rampant. That pessimism had been voiced by Bryce, not for the purpose of criticism but of warning. By 1893 it had become the prevailing fashion. But it was worse than a fashion. It was an influence. It halted action. It crippled progress. It even clouded visions. It was as if we then used the present-day phrase: "Today is that tomorrow of which yesterday we hoped so much." We did not then add: "If tomorrow we would not be as disappointed as we are today, we must act today."

And yet twenty years ago there had already begun the municipal renaissance which is so evident throughout America today. It was in 1893 that three significant things happened which have combined to produce the city-building movement that has been and is, I believe, the greatest force in the dissolution of municipal pessimism.

I remarked just now that that pessimism had clouded vision. But it had not killed it. Hope is eternal and vision is hope concentrated. My fellow city planners will have anticipated me in naming the three things that happened in 1893 as the publication in one form or another of three great dreams. We hear sometimes that the plans for city growth that we are presenting from year to year are staggering. But none of them compare to the staggering shock that must have been felt in Boston when Eliot's audacious outer park scheme was proposed; or to that in Kansas City at the publication of its suggested interior

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park and parkway system; or at Burnham's civic center, that the world has since acclaimed as the Court of Honor of the World's Fair of Chicago. I remind you of these twice-told tales to nerve you on to things not only as bold, but bolder: to beg you to dream greater dreams, see greater visions. For it is indeed true, as the toast-master said, that what we prepare today is vastly surpassed tomorrow.

City planners need perspective — perspective of the past, I mean. They are not city planners at all if a perspective of the future is not theirs; but the perspective of the past — the realization of great things done — is persuasive. I do not think there is anything that we need so much as to remind ourselves constantly that Eliot's dream is today far more than realized; that Kansas City boasts the actual possession of a park system double that dreamed twenty years ago. And if we need it — if, in the slow progress from month to month, from year to year — we need the constant stimulus of the story of great things done — the general public needs it far more. Show your indifferent man in the street a city plan and he will in secret deride you; show him a similar plan of another city and tell him that that city has done the thing, and he will show surprise; tell him that it has physically been far more than realized and he will question your statement: but he who questions is lost to indifference.

It is because of the faith that is in you that you must dream greatly. Burnham was everlastingly right when he said: "Make no little plans. They have no magic to stir men's blood, and probably themselves will not be realized. Make big plans. Aim high in hope and work, remembering that a noble, logical diagram once recorded will never die, but long after we are gone will be a living thing, asserting itself with ever growing insistency. Remember that our sons and grandsons are going to do things that will stagger us." There is in that the psychology of men in masses.

It is the result of the great dreams of 1893 that Ameri-

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can cities today lead the world in their park systems. People think that such a statement is bombast and yet its complete truth is recognized in other countries.

Mr. Adshead, to whom Mr. Adams referred in an article on the contribution to city planning made by different countries, refers to American park systems thus:¹ "The scientific provision of recreation is America's most concrete achievement and it has taken the form of the working up of parks, playgrounds and open spaces into an organic system. . . . In this connection America has advanced ahead of any European country. . . . There is also the intensive use of open spaces, in which the utmost possible value is extracted from them, as exemplified in the playground and neighborhood centers of Chicago, Milwaukee and other towns. . . . There is also visible a gradation in the character of the open spaces. There are, for example, those near the center in the form of small playgrounds and formal town gardens — the Luxembourg Gardens of Paris and the Parc, Brussels, illustrate this type. There is then, further out, the great Town Park, still highly artificial in its layout — the Prater at Vienna and the Bois de la Cambre at Brussels are typical examples of this. Finally, there are the Nature Reserves or stretches of open country left in their natural state, but prevented from being spoiled by any building. The wooded hills round at Vienna and the Forêt de Soignes at Brussels are admirable European examples of the Nature Reserve; but although Vienna and Brussels, and other European towns, possess to a more or less extent these types, in no instance can they be seen definitely joined together in the same way as at Boston, which represents the highest achievement in this direction — the Metropolitan Park Commission extending over 38 neighboring cities and towns and including 15,000 acres of parks and 25 miles of parkways."

I have quoted from Mr. Adshead to show that we must have more confidence in ourselves. Undoubtedly we have

¹ Town Planning Review, July, 1913.

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much to learn from other countries, but they have something to learn from us. One thing that we must learn is that the danger is that we shall under-plan rather than over-plan.

The financial situation of American cities was referred to by Mr. Cass Gilbert, with an admonition to economy. We all recognize the necessity of economy; but there is an economy which consists in doing without, which is not real economy. Doing without is penury. It may be extravagance. A city that does without parks and playgrounds in generous profusion is not economical, but extravagant; it is extravagant of the health and lives of its men and women workers, and especially of its children who will be the burden bearers of the next generation. City planning is often the economy of recognizing the wisdom of apparent extravagance. Kansas City had a dream in 1893 which undoubtedly appeared extravagant, but the landowners have realized 300 and 400 per cent out of that extravagance, though they themselves were compelled to pay the entire cost, through assessment of special benefits. The city has realized the wisdom of that extravagance through increase in income caused by the resulting increase in assessed valuations.

I deny that the big plans that are prepared today are too big. I deny a solid foundation for a fear of the future. It is extraordinary how difficult it is to persuade citizens that their city is bound to grow. They give lip recognition to the idea but no practical recognition of it. I presume that every one of you have found this out. It was impressed upon me at a board meeting of an association in Philadelphia devoted to city planning propaganda, when I remarked that during the next administration's term of office a new city equal to Columbus, Ohio, would be added to Philadelphia. The statement was not accepted at first but of course it was easy to prove it. Now you here in Detroit have grown enormously during the last decade between 1900 and 1910. You grew at the rate of 63 per cent.

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Faith in the future would persuade you that it is part of wisdom to expect a similar growth during the present decade. Even though that rate is not maintained, the preparation of plans for that rate would only be two or three years out of calculation. You are able to show by a pamphlet which I have seen since I came here that 39 per cent of your homes are owned by people who live in them. I hope that is true. It is a magnificent record, and from what I have learned of your prosperity I believe that it is true.

In municipal psychology the dominant note of the last two decades has not been the creation of parks and playground systems, profound though their effect on the public has been and will be; nor the undertaking of civic centers, although many of them are well on toward completion today; nor street construction or reconstruction, though city after city is doing the physical work now—but the recognition that every city has a future. Patent as that fact is, it was not squarely recognized in the scheme of most municipal governments until the last six years. In 1907 the first City Planning Commission was appointed. Now there are over 100 of them. Whatever the ultimate form that city planning commissions will take—and, like all governmental agencies, they will necessarily be experimental—this is the gist of their creation: they will continuously remind the city and the citizens that it is not the dead past, nor the fleeting present, but the future with all its vastness that must be their chief concern. This is profoundly significant.

Sometimes in the great endeavor to foresee the future and to persuade governmental authorities to act upon that foresight we halt and hesitate; sometimes we wish for the completed thing, the fact accomplished, the ultimate city. We err in doing so. The only ultimate city is the city of the past; the only city that needs no reconstruction is the dead city. A great merchant of New York and Philadelphia, when just getting his head above water, was accosted

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in his Chestnut Street store by an irritated customer, with the remark that he had just been annoyed by the sound of the carpenters' hammer at work during business hours. "Yes," said the merchant, "and I hope the sound of the hammer will never cease." That it has not ceased is a sufficient index of his success. That there is no such thing as completion is really a great cause for cheer. That the outer park system of yesterday is the boundary park system of today and will be the inner park system of tomorrow means that today we must acquire the outer park system of tomorrow, and must plan the ring beyond for the day after tomorrow.

The necessity of constant reconstruction is not to be regretted. Reconstruction means renewal of opportunity.

Two or three months ago I inspected the Lincoln memorial at Washington, and for a moment wished I could see the ultimate thing, the pools of water framed by elms leading up to its majestic beauty; and yet I know that any one who has had a part, little or big, directly or indirectly, officially or merely as a part of articulate public opinion, is getting more joy out of it today than those who will come tomorrow to see it completed. The builders of the Pyramids derived more pleasure from them than we do. There is more recompense in accomplishing than in accomplishment.

We have thoroughly enjoyed the time that we have had in Detroit. You have been exceedingly good to us, and have shown us fully the city which your fathers created. We praise them for the creation of the Grand Boulevard of which you today are so justly proud. We praise you because you are preparing similar plans for the future. We have been particularly delighted to see these plans for the creation of a thoroughly organized city, and we hope and expect that you will carry them out. We from other cities will be your rivals in the matter of actual accomplishments of similar city plans, but it will be a generous rivalry; and when we have the opportunity to come here again to

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enjoy such hospitality as we have enjoyed here tonight, I beg to assure you that we hope to see many of these plans realized; and if you have done more than we of other cities shall have accomplished, we will heartily applaud you.

CONFERENCE OF DELEGATES

FROM NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS TO CONSIDER CITY PLANNING COÖPERATION

ON Tuesday evening, June 8, 1915, thirty-one delegates, officially appointed by fourteen national organizations, met at the Hotel Statler, Detroit, to consider the possibilities of coöperating in extending interest in and knowledge with regard to city planning.

Mr. Lee J. Ninde of Fort Wayne, Ind., the chairman of the City Planning Committee of the National Association of Real Estate Exchanges, said that the idea of such coöperation was suggested to him from the fact that he had found real estate men generally keenly alive to the value of city planning but they did not know where to turn to obtain concrete information on the subject. He said that much of it existed in the papers and discussions of the National City Planning Conference, but the conference has not had the means for editing and disseminating this information other than in their "Proceedings" and "Bulletin," which have had a limited and special circulation. He went to some of the members of the National City Planning Conference, the American Civic Association and the American Institute of Architects to see how they could help him. One of the first things that was apparent when they came to consider a plan of action was that much of the valuable experience and real knowledge of the various matters which are currently treated in city planning work would be found among the members of other more specialized organizations. It was recognized that it would be desirable to go to such bodies as the

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American Association of Commercial Organization Secretaries

American Federation of Arts

American Institute of Consulting Engineers

American Society of Cemetery Superintendents

American Society of Civil Engineers

American Society of Electrical Engineers

American Society of Landscape Architects

American Society of Mechanical Engineers

American Society of Municipal Improvement

American Society of Park Superintendents

Conference of American Mayors

National Association of Builders Exchanges

National Fire Protection Association

National Housing Association

National Municipal League

National Water Works Association

This suggested the obvious idea of bringing together those who were already interested in city planning in each of these bodies to see whether there might not be some way of organizing coöperation generally among those national bodies whose subjects bordered on city planning to the common end of each helping the others to round out their knowledge of the subject.

The officers of a number of the bodies above mentioned were asked if they would consider coöperating in such a work. The replies showed that the idea was most favorably received. As the annual meeting on June 7th to 9th of the National Conference on City Planning seemed a favorable occasion to bring about a meeting of representatives of each of the groups, a number of the associations were asked to send delegations to a conference in Detroit on June 8th.

The thirty-one delegates at this meeting were unanimous in feeling that there was a great and rapidly growing demand for city planning, and a very general need for proper education in it. It was felt that a great deal of city plan-

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ning endeavor and zeal was running amuck through lack of information generally distributed as to what constituted good practice. They knew that the necessary experience and ideas existed among the members of their respective groups but through lack of adequate media for disseminating them, they often failed to reach those who had the greatest need of them. They felt that their fellow members could render a marked public service by contributing from their knowledge to the general fund of city planning information, adapting their ideas for lay consumption and allowing them to be spread broadcast through the magazines, the press and by various propagandizing bodies.

The delegates were rather afraid that comparatively few of their fellow members had any clear conception of what city planning meant or what local city planning bodies were really trying to do. They felt therefore that probably education should start at home; that the various national associations should take it upon themselves to educate their own members to understand what comprehensive city planning really means, how rapidly it is growing in importance and, in particular, just what part the members of the organizations could and should take in it. For not only is there a general demand for specific technical knowledge which only the experts can contribute, but also these very men are being asked currently as a public duty to serve on local city plan committees and commissions and help generally in city planning work in their home towns. Thus it particularly behooves them to secure such a broad comprehensive grasp of the subject as will enable them to successfully lead in the work.

To this end it was most urgently recommended that everything feasible be done, first, to assemble for general distribution the expert knowledge and experience which might come from the members of the various bodies, and second, to extend the interest among and round out the knowledge of the members in all that has to do with city planning. It was recommended:

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First. That each association at its next annual convention devote a session, or even part of a session, to discussing the subject of city planning, showing the particular relation it has to the object of the association and showing just what the members should have to do with the subject both for their own good and for the good of the general public.

Second. That articles and news items on city planning matters, edited so that they will have a peculiar appeal and significance to their readers, be included currently in the official organs or journals of each organization, and in such other technical or professional magazines as are read by the members.

Third. That each official organ or trade journal co-operate with its respective association to aid it in preparing city planning articles.

Fourth. That the members coöperate more in the preparation of city planning articles for the general magazines, the newspapers, for the propagandist work of organizations like the American Civic Association and that they help in the campaign of city planning education in the schools and libraries.

Fifth. That a special committee on city planning be appointed within each body to treat all of the matters here discussed and any others that may come up.

Sixth. That each committee send representatives to the next meeting of the National Conference on City Planning, there to consider and discuss coöperation among national organizations and how they may be mutually helpful in all that pertains to city planning in relation to their respective interests.

Seventh. That each committee confer and coöperate with the National City Planning Conference in their common interest and use as far as practicable the facilities of the conference for the assembling and editing of publishable material.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

Eighth. That the Department of the Interior at Washington be requested to distribute broadcast pamphlets on city planning and act as an information bureau on city planning matters.

It was felt that a joint conference would be most necessary to determine what should best be done and in what order, how to go about it, what part each organization should take, who would be best suited to do such tasks as might become necessary, and once the plans were decided upon, who would go back to the members of the respective organizations and interpret to them the conference's ideas.

It was generally felt that the whole matter was one of great importance and urgency and one in which the co-operation of all was vitally necessary.

GEORGE B. FORD,

Chairman pro tem of the joint conference of delegates from national organizations to consider coöperation in city planning matters.

The above is a copy of the statement which has been sent out by the chairman of the Conference to the Committee on Plan and Scope, which he was asked to appoint to consider just what should be done and how. This committee consists of the following:

American Institute of Architects

FREDERICK L. ACKERMAN, 62 W. 45th St., New York City.

Commission of Conservation of Canada

THOMAS ADAMS, Ottawa, Can.

American Society of Mechanical Engineers

CHARLES WHITING BAKER, Editor, Engineering News, W. 36th St., New York City.

American Society of Municipal Improvement

HARLAND BARTHOLOMEW, Firemen's Building, Newark, N. J.

National Association of Builders Exchanges

CHARLES A. BOWEN, Detroit, Mich.

Conference of American Mayors

W. P. CAPES, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.

American Society of Cemetery Superintendents

FRANK EURICH, Detroit, Mich.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

American Society of Civil Engineers

HENRY W. HODGE, 149 Broadway, New York City.

National Water Works Association

NICHOLAS S. HILL, JR., 100 William St., New York City.

National Fire Protection Association

ROBERT D. KOHN, 56 W. 45th St., New York City.

American Institute of Consulting Engineers

CHARLES W. LEAVITT, 220 Broadway, New York City.

American Federation of Arts

MISS LEILA MECHLIN, Secretary, Washington, D. C.

American Society of Electrical Engineers

RALPH MERSCHAN, 80 Maiden Lane, New York City.

National Association of Real Estate Exchanges

LEE J. NINDE, Fort Wayne, Ind.

National City Planning Conference

FREDERICK L. OLMTED, Brookline, Mass.

American Society of Park Superintendents

GEORGE A. PARKER, Hartford, Conn.

American Society of Landscape Architects

T. GLENN PHILLIPS, Detroit, Mich.

National Association of Commercial Organization Secretaries

HOWARD STRONG, Civic & Commerce Association, Minneapolis, Minn.

National Housing Association

LAWRENCE D. VEILLER, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.

American Civic Association

RICHARD B. WATROUS, Union Trust Building, Washington, D.C.

National Municipal League

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, 121 So. Broad St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Member ex officio

GEORGE B. FORD, Municipal Building, New York City.

The members of this committee have the matter now under consideration and it is hoped that during the coming months a plan of action will be determined upon.

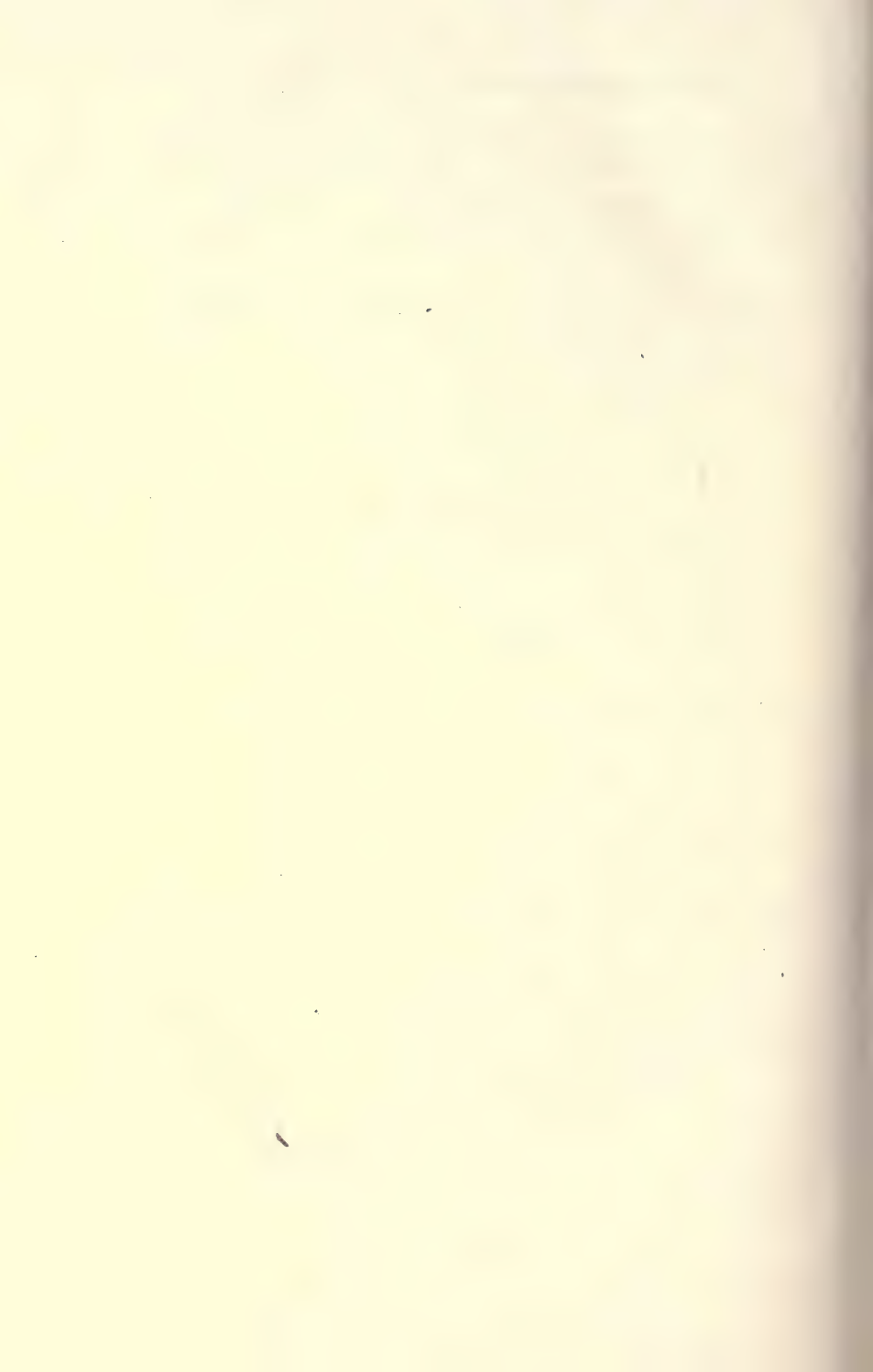
It is not the intention in any way whatsoever to form a new city planning organization apart from the National City Planning Conference. It is the intention in the scheme above outlined to extend and supplement the range of

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activity and usefulness of the National City Planning Conference, and it is the intention that this newly formed committee shall coöperate with the Committee on Publicity and Public Information of the National City Planning Conference of which Mr. Richard B. Watrous is chairman.

The following societies were represented at the conference of delegates:

- National City Planning Conference.
- American Civic Association.
- American Institute of Architects.
- American Institute of Consulting Engineers.
- American Society of Civil Engineers.
- American Society of Landscape Architects.
- American Society of Civil Engineers.
- American Society of Landscape Architects.
- American Society of Municipal Improvements.
- National Association of Builders' Exchanges.
- National Association of Real Estate Exchanges.
- National Conference of Mayors and other City Officials.
- National Fire Protection Association.
- National Housing Association.
- Commission of Conservation of Canada.



BUSINESS SESSION

BUSINESS SESSION

THE conference met in executive session at half-past four on Wednesday, June 9, Mr. Frederick L. Olmsted presiding.

RESOLUTIONS OF THANKS

Resolved, That we express to the mayor, official boards and people of Detroit our appreciation of the complete manner in which they have entertained the conference. The generous help which they have given and the personal attention of many citizens have made this one of the pleasantest and most successful of our meetings. Our sincere thanks are hereby tendered. We also wish to thank the Detroit press for their kindly interest and assistance.

Resolved, That the thanks of the conference be tendered to Walter Campbell and to the company represented by him for the use of their splendid new steamboat on Tuesday. We greatly appreciate this exceptional opportunity to see the Detroit River. No item of hospitality was omitted from start to finish.

Resolved, That a vote of thanks be tendered to the City Plan and Improvement Commission of Detroit, of which Charles Moore is chairman and T. Glenn Phillips is secretary, for the leading part it has assumed and so successfully borne in the preparation for the management of this conference.

Resolved, That we transmit to the Board of Commerce of Detroit our thanks for their hospitality to us on Monday and our sincere appreciation of their coöperation and help throughout the conference, which so materially contributed to its success.

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ORGANIZATION OF THE EIGHTH CONFERENCE

At the opening session of the conference a nominating committee was appointed which submitted nominations for both the executive and general committees. Additions to the latter were made from the floor.

Voted: That the report of the committee on nominations, as amended by nominations from the floor, be accepted.

Voted: That the executive committee be authorized to add one to its number from the city at which the next conference shall be held.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

FREDERICK LAW OLNSTED, Fellow American Society of Landscape Architects, Brookline, Mass., Chairman.

NELSON P. LEWIS, Chief Engineer Board of Estimate and Apportionment, New York City, Vice-Chairman.

GEORGE E. HOOKER, Secretary City Club, Chicago.

LAWRENCE VEILLER, Secretary and Director National Housing Association, New York City.

ANDREW WRIGHT CRAWFORD, Esq., Philadelphia.

HON. LAWSON PURDY, President Department Taxes and Assessments, New York City.

CHARLES MOORE, Detroit, Mich.

E. P. GOODRICH, Consulting Engineer, New York City.

JOHN NOLEN, Landscape Architect, Cambridge, Mass.

EDWARD H. BENNETT, Consultant in City Planning, Chicago.

RICHARD B. WATROUS, Secretary American Civic Association, Washington, D. C.

GEORGE S. WEBSTER, Chief Engineer, Philadelphia.

THOMAS ADAMS, Town Planning Adviser, Commission of Conservation, Ottawa, Canada.

GEORGE B. FORD, Architect and Consultant in City Planning, New York City.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

HENRY C. WRIGHT, New York City.

LEE J. NINDE, Chairman City Planning Committee, National Association of Real Estate Exchanges, Fort Wayne, Ind.

A. L. BROCKWAY, Architect, Syracuse, N. Y.

W. TEMPLETON JOHNSON, Architect, San Diego, Cal.

ALFRED BETTMAN, Esq., Cincinnati, Ohio.

GENERAL COMMITTEE

HON. GEORGE MCANENY New York City

ARNOLD W. BRUNNER New York City

B. A. HALDEMAN Philadelphia

ALLEN B. POND Chicago

FRANK B. WILLIAMS, Esq New York City

RICHARD M. HURD New York City

W. F. DUMMER Chicago

T. GLENN PHILLIPS Detroit

HOWARD STRONG Minneapolis

JOHN IHLDER New York City

GEORGE E. KESSLER St. Louis

MAJ. JOSEPH W. SHIRLEY Baltimore

A. A. STOUGHTON Winnipeg

MEYER LISSNER Los Angeles

JAMES D. PHELAN San Francisco

PAUL L. FEISS Cleveland

MUNSON HAVENS Cleveland

A. C. COMEY Cambridge, Mass.

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON Rochester

VINCENT S. STEVENS Akron, Ohio

COL. D. N. FOSTER Fort Wayne, Ind.

PROF. AUBREY TEALDI Ann Arbor, Mich.

ELI D. HOFELLER Buffalo

EDWARD M. BASSETT, Esq. New York City

JOHN C. DANA Newark

J. C. MURPHY Louisville

J. C. NICHOLS Kansas City, Mo.

GEORGE B. LONGAN Kansas City, Mo.

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J. P. HYNES	Toronto
HENRY A. BARKER	Providence, R. I.
PAUL A. HARSCH	Toledo
ROBERT W. HEMPHILL, JR.....	Ypsilanti, Mich.
RICHARD WATERMAN	Washington
MORRIS KNOWLES	Pittsburgh
S. S. KRESGE	Detroit
GEORGE B. DEALEY	Dallas, Tex.
KING G. THOMPSON	Columbus, Ohio
R. C. STURGIS	Boston
CHARLES H. CHENEY	Berkeley, Cal.
M. N. BAKER	Montclair, N. J.
DUNCAN McDUFFIE	Berkeley, Cal.
HENRY WRIGHT	St. Louis
EDWARD A. FILENE	Boston
O. C. SIMONDS	Chicago
DR. J. E. PEAIRS	Pueblo, Colo.
EDWARD H. BOUTON	Baltimore
HON. FRED W. KELLER	South Bend, Ind.
MAJ. CHARLES W. KUTZ	Washington
L. S. SMITH	Madison, Wis.
R. M. HATTIE	Halifax

INVITATIONS TO THE CONFERENCE FOR 1915

Invitations were received from Cleveland, Richmond, St. Louis, Atlantic City, Memphis, Baltimore, San Francisco.

Voted: That the executive committee be authorized to select the meeting place for 1916.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

REPORT OF CONFERENCE COMMITTEE

ON "BEST METHODS OF LAND SUBDIVISION"

INTRODUCTION

At the last conference, held in Toronto, a special committee was appointed to investigate the prevailing methods of land subdivision in the various parts of the United States and to present to this conference a report of their findings. An outline of the information desired, and suggested methods of procuring the same, were submitted to committees in various cities; and this report comprises an analysis of the information submitted by them. The following municipalities have reported:

Berkeley, Cal.	Louisville, Ky.
Boston, Mass.	Montreal, Que.
Bridgeport, Conn.	New York, N. Y.
Brookline, Mass.	Newark, N. J.
Chicago, Ill.	Philadelphia, Pa.
Cleveland, Ohio	Syracuse, N. Y.
Detroit, Mich.	Vancouver, B. C.
Kansas City, Mo.	Washington, D. C.

and much information has been extracted from a paper by Lawrence Veiller, submitted to the Third National Conference on City Planning, held in Philadelphia in 1911.

While the request for information comprised seven characteristics concerning which information was desired with reference to the subdivision plan, six statements of conditions as to dates, values, topography, etc., and four points as to physical, social and financial results, not enough information was obtainable from the various cities to make it possible to report comprehensively with regard to

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each of these items. In some instances deductions have been drawn from the reports of only a single city with regard to the various subjects considered in this report along the following lines:

1. Lot size

- (a) Typical dimensions
- (b) Change tendencies
- (c) Effect of size on buildings
- (d) Effect of size on values
- (e) Effect of restrictions
- (f) Alleys
- (g) Standards

2. Streets

Effect of width, character, direction, amount of travel, transportation facilities.

Under each topic will first be given extracts from the various city reports, followed by a résumé and the conclusions which have been deduced by the reporter.

DATA

LOT SIZE

BERKELEY, CAL.

HILLEGAS BLOCK

The blocks were made 319 feet deep by 600 feet long. These blocks were subdivided into lots 50 by 159.45 feet, but these latter subdivisions were not adhered to when the sale of the land was started. Some bought lots wider than 50 feet, while others bought narrower lots. With a few exceptions the lots 40 feet wide have been used, even in places where a choice as to the width was given.

BOSTON, MASS.

A most interesting example of a business block is shown in Fig. 23,¹ a typical block in the heart of the Boston retail district. The original lots were 50 to 80 feet wide and 250 to 300 feet deep. The modern map shows the effect of continued division of the lots, leaving many of the units only 15 to 25 feet wide and between 50 and 65 feet deep. The counter tendency, also modern, due to the need for larger areas for larger buildings, is shown in the northwest corner.

¹ Sketch accompanying report of a local committee.

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BROOKLINE, MASS.

The town engineer's office of Brookline has on file copies of all plattings of land in Brookline which are on file at the registry of deeds, 2959 in number, and in addition 334 such plans not recorded at the registry. An examination of all these plans shows that they may be classified as follows:

First. 712 subdivision plans which cover considerable areas and in which it is apparent that the depth of the lots was a matter of choice, since different depths could have been secured without affecting previously existing streets or outside properties.

Second. 336 subdivision plans covering only a few lots each and where the depths of the lots appear to have been practically fixed by the size and shape of the whole parcel and by the location of existing streets.

Third. 525 plans of subdivisions of such irregular or abnormal sort that the lot sizes cannot readily be classified by width and depth.

Fourth. 1720 plans which are not subdivision plans at all but show one lot each or adjustments of boundaries, etc.

The 712 plans of the first class have been examined and the lot sizes classified as shown by Table No. 1.

CHICAGO, ILL.

The blocks of the original town (1832) of Chicago were divided into 80 foot lots generally. There were a few 30, 50 and 60 foot lots west of the river. The original lot lines were kept for the most part as long as the lots were used for residence purposes, although often split into two or three lots for one residence.

As the city grew these residence lots changed into business, and with this change came the resubdivision of the blocks, not by the city but by the owners. A man wishing to build a store or factory figured how much property was required and made arrangements to acquire it, often getting probably 15 feet on one side and say 10 feet on the other. This condition has gone on until today there is very little trace of the original lot layout to be found in the business section. (The fire in 1871 may have had something to do with this condition, but there was some tendency toward this before the fire.)

The first additions to Chicago made before 1850 were laid out into 50 foot lots as a standard.

Coming down to the later subdivisions which are at present in or near the center of the city, there are two distinct types used: one on the north and west sides, the other on the south side. On the north and west sides the lots were between 20 and 30 feet. On the south side the lots were 75 to 80 feet.

In the original town, with the first extensions thereto, the depth of

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the typical 80 and 50 foot lots were generally from 160 to 180 feet, with a few lots as small as 130 feet.

The depth of the present day typical lot is 125 feet. This has been the standard depth for more than forty years.

CLEVELAND, OHIO

In the plans submitted, one refers to a section of the city in the heart of the business district, and the other one to a block in the residence district. You will notice that in each case there was insufficient provision for cross streets, that the blocks were too long and the lots too deep, so that in each case resubdividing was necessary in order to make the land available.

Except in the more expensive residence districts, there seems now locally to be a tendency to adopt a lot size of from 40 to 50 feet frontage and from 100 to 150 feet in depth, depending somewhat upon the extent of the land to be developed. A number of allotments are supplied with 35 foot lots, but the majority are somewhat greater in frontage.

DETROIT, MICH.

What are the best standard lot dimensions used and practical for Detroit?

Our answer would be, that the standard size for central residence properties for Detroit are 50 feet front, with a depth varying from 100 to 190 feet, with a 20 foot alley or lane running across the rear.

Wage earners' lots, platted just inside and outside of the city limits, are generally 30 feet front by 100 to 125 feet in depth, with a 20 foot alley running across the rear.

KANSAS CITY, MO.

The original subdivision shows the typical narrow, deep lot platted and used so much in Kansas City at one period, but which has practically been abandoned in residence additions. It will be seen that none of the better houses on Harrison Street used single lots. On Campbell Street, where the houses were less pretentious, the small lot was used.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

This committee early came to the conclusion that our present city lots are too deep. 200 feet is the depth of the original city blocks, but blocks have been made of lesser depth in land subdivision by private owners in later years, even to the extreme of 100 feet in a few cases. We might say, however, that the minimum depth has been due to physical conditions that were insurmountable; generally the strips of land being subdivided were too narrow to provide deeper

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lots. We have seen in the block we are studying that although the original lots were 200 feet deep, their owners cut them in two, making the lots 100 feet deep. This is well below the average depth, but we see that even this extreme has proven to be the more desirable, as shown by the block in question.

While we are convinced that our lots are too deep for residence and ordinary business purposes, we are still groping for light and hope as a result of the experience collected by the general committee to be able to adopt something that will prove to be more satisfactory.

NEW YORK, N. Y.

The lot units are uniformly 100 feet deep and 25 feet wide in Manhattan and the Bronx and 20 feet wide in Brooklyn, Queens and Richmond.

NEWARK, N. J.

The prevailing lot size in Newark has been 25 by 100 feet. There are, however, numerous other subdivisions, especially of size 20 by 100 feet.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.

Village of Salina, surveyed in 1798, and laid out in 16 squares of 396 feet on a side, and each square containing 4 lots, 198 by 198 feet.

Later, when this area was further developed for residential purposes, the depth of the majority of the lots averaged 99 to 198 feet, while the frontages varied from 22 to 198 feet, with a general average of $49\frac{1}{2}$ to 33, 66, 100 and 40 feet.

This subdivision has varied but little for the last fifty years, except for the development of the industrial lots in the north and west.

On the 1834 map of Syracuse the average large lot measurements are 140 by 485 feet, and the small ones 66 by 132 feet.

In the university section, which is now practically all built up, the prevailing sizes of lots average 50, 60, 66, 80 feet, and a good number 100 feet, while in depth 132 and 165 feet predominate.

In certain cheaper lands subdivisions have been made previous to 1900 in which are found many lots of 33 feet width, varying in depth from $87\frac{1}{2}$ to 150 feet, 132 foot lots predominating.

On investigation of more recent subdivisions it was found that out of 11 examined, 5 showed an average of lots 40 by 120 feet, two 50 by 150 feet, and one each of 33 by 120 feet, 40 by 140 feet, 40 by 107 feet, and 40 by 143 feet.

VEILLER, LAWRENCE

What, it may be asked, is the general practice in America today with regard to each of these important points? How have our streets been laid out in our leading cities?

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The only answer that can be made to these questions is that there is no general plan. The practice varies through infinite degrees in each city. In order to determine what the practice was, a questionnaire was sent recently to all cities in the United States having over one hundred thousand population according to the latest census returns. This included the fifty largest cities in the United States. Definite returns to the questionnaire were received from the following forty-six cities: Albany, Atlanta, Boston, Bridgeport, Buffalo, Cambridge, Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, Denver, Detroit, Fall River, Grand Rapids, Indianapolis, Jersey City, Kansas City, Los Angeles, Louisville, Lowell, Memphis, Milwaukee, Newark, New Haven, New Orleans, New York, Omaha, Paterson, N. J., Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Providence, Richmond, Rochester, San Francisco, Scranton, Seattle, Spokane, St. Louis, St. Paul, Syracuse, Toledo, Washington, Worcester, Nashville and Portland, Ore.

The depth of lot, if one can judge from the information thus received, seems to vary from 50 to 200 feet. In the great majority of cities the lots exceed 100 feet in depth. In only three cases is the usual depth of lot less than 100 feet, namely, in the cities of Philadelphia, where it ranges from 40 feet upward, in Lowell, Mass., where it ranges from 80 to 150 feet, and Washington, where it ranges from 50 to 100 feet. In twenty-five cases, or over one-half of all the cities, the usual lot is 125 feet or over. In nine cases, or one-fifth of all, the usual depth of lot is 150 feet or over.

Résumé

BERKELEY	50 × 159.45
BOSTON	50 to 80 × 250 to 300 originally; 15 to 25 × 50 to 65 now
BRIDGEPORT . . .	30, 40 to 50 × 100 (125 few)
BROOKLINE	40 to 60 × 90 to 100 (majority)
CHICAGO	50 to 80 × 160 to 180; 25 to 75 × 125 today
CLEVELAND	40 to 50 × 100 to 150; few 35
DETROIT	50 × 100 to 190; 30 × 100 to 125
KANSAS CITY . . .	25 × 150 and larger
LOUISVILLE . . .	— × 200 at first; — × 100 of late
NEW YORK	25 × 100 Manhattan, Bronx; 20 × 100 Brooklyn, Queens, Richmond
NEWARK	25 × 100; few 20 × 100
PHILADELPHIA . .	14 to 16 × 45 to 125 mostly; 19 to 22 × 75 to 105 few
SYRACUSE	200 × 200, 33 to 100 × 100 to 200; 140 × 486, 66 × 132; 40 × 120, 5 out of 11 lots
VEILLER	46 cities, — × 50 to 200; 25 more than 125; 9 more than 150

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Conclusions

Philadelphia is in a class by itself, 15 × 60 average.

New England (Boston, Brookline) is irregular but tending toward, 40 to 60 × 90 to 100.

New York (and Newark), 20 to 25 × 100.

Middle and Western cities with later tendencies toward reduction in both dimensions, 50 × 150 average.

LOT SIZE CHANGE TENDENCIES

BOSTON, MASS.

A most interesting example of a business block is shown in Fig. 23,¹ a typical block in the heart of the Boston retail district.

The original lots were 50 to 80 feet wide and 250 to 300 feet deep. The modern map shows the effect of continued division of the lots, leaving many of the units only 15 to 25 feet wide and between 50 and 65 feet deep. The counter tendency, also modern, due to the need for larger areas for larger buildings, is shown in the northwest corner.

BROOKLINE, MASS.

The remaining lots of the original subdivision, between Walnut and Boylston streets on higher ground and a little further from the village, were in 1859 still 70 feet or more in width, but where they were originally more than 170 feet deep from street to street new lots 100 feet deep facing on Boylston Street had been cut off the rear end of them.

With few exceptions the lots running through from street to street have been cut in two, or at least occupied by independent buildings on the two frontages, even where the distance from street to street is only 80 feet, making lots only 40 feet deep.

There has been a tendency, under the exigencies of use, to convert the lots shown on the filed plats into shallower and wider parcels. Omitting the irregular corner parcels in each case, the average width and depth of the platted lots, as per Diagram 2, of 1859 is about 35½ by 78½ feet; of the lots in 1913, as per ownership lines on Diagram 3, about 43 by 78 feet; or reckoning a separate lot for each independent building having a frontage on the street where two or more are held by the same owner, the lots of 1913 average about 40½ by 76 feet.

CHICAGO, ILL.

As the city grew these residence lots changed into business, and with this change came the resubdivision of the blocks, not by the

¹ Sketch accompanying local committee report.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

city but by the owners. A man wishing to build a store or factory figured how much property was required and made arrangements to acquire it, often getting probably 15 feet on one side and say 10 feet on the other. This condition has gone on until today there is very little trace of the original lot layout to be found in the business section. (The fire in 1871 may have had something to do with this condition, but there was some tendency toward this before the fire.) This may be due to some extent to the size of the lots, which were too large for ordinary use in a smaller town.

The first additions to Chicago made before 1850 were laid out into 50 foot lots as a standard. This was probably due to the fact that the 80 foot lots were too large for general uses. These 50 foot lots have passed through much the same development as the 80 foot lots of the original town, and the same line of reasoning can be used in this case.

On the north and west sides the lots were between 20 and 30 feet. These lots even today are intact, although often a single building may occupy as high as four or five of these small lots. However, where the business has pushed into this district it has not overrun the lot lines to any great extent. On the south side the lots were 75 to 80 feet. These lots often proved to be too large and the result is they were broken up into smaller lots.

The depth of the present day typical lot is 125 feet. This has been the standard depth for more than forty years.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

This committee early came to the conclusion that our present city lots are too deep. 200 feet is the depth of the original city blocks, but blocks have been made of lesser depth in land subdivision by private owners in later years, even to the extreme of 100 feet in a few cases. We might say, however, that the minimum depth has been due to physical conditions that were insurmountable; generally the strips of land being subdivided were too narrow to provide deeper lots. We have seen in the block we are studying that although the original lots were 200 feet deep, their owners cut them in two, making the lots 100 feet deep. This is well below the average depth, but we see that even this extreme has proven to be the more desirable, as shown by the block in question.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The development of the one family house in Philadelphia is especially interesting. In the early growth of the city houses four stories high with deep lots were built in solid blocks; as the city was extended this type of dwelling gave way to the three story one upon a smaller lot, and still later the two story house came largely into vogue. With

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

the change in the type of house there was a corresponding change in the size of the lot, the change being almost invariably toward shallower depths for the row houses. Today the tendency in some sections of the city is to erect the row house upon the shallowest lot permitted.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.

On the 1834 map of Syracuse the average large lot measurements are 140 by 485 feet, and the small ones 66 by 132 feet.

On investigation of more recent subdivisions it was found that out of 11 examined, 5 showed an average of lots 40 by 120 feet, two 50 by 150 feet, and one each of 33 by 120 feet, 40 by 140 feet, 40 by 107 feet, and 40 by 143 feet.

Résumé

BROOKLINE	90 to 100 large majority; 76 special study majority
CHICAGO	125 standard (for 40 years); 80 and 50 feet width split; 20 to 30 retained
LOUISVILLE	Reducing down to 100 depth
NEW YORK	100 standard (no change for over 100 years)
NEWARK	100 standard
PHILADELPHIA . . .	Deep tending to shallowest possible (45?)
SYRACUSE	128 average of 11 late additions

Conclusions

General tendency shown toward reduction in depth, except New York (Newark) and Chicago at 100 and 125 respectively, 100 and 40 year standards.

Cities which had lots deeper than 100 tending toward that figure.

New England with its irregular size tending below 100.

Philadelphia tending to smallest possible.

Widths in all places (except Philadelphia) tend down to about 30, while larger and wider than 20 are recommended everywhere.

EFFECT OF LOT SIZE ON TYPE OF DEVELOPMENT

BERKELEY, CAL.

HILLEGAS BLOCK

A peculiarity of this block is its excessive depth of lots. This was necessary because the block was made too wide, and as only two rows of houses could be secured, the depth of lot adopted was necessarily large. The excess of land, after the house on each lot was built, was not used for agricultural or any other purposes, which might either

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have brought additional revenue or added beauty to the surroundings. The reason probably was that the area was too large to be taken care of properly by the owner.

Due to the excessive depth of these lots, whose excess land could not be used for any purpose, rear houses have been erected. These houses are just as large and of the same character as the front houses.

In lots 40 feet wide and 159.48 feet deep there has been a tendency to build one and even two rear houses.

Lots 96 feet deep have answered the purpose well for the building of one residence only.

CHICAGO, ILL.

A man wishing to build a store or factory figured how much property was required and made arrangements to acquire it, often getting probably 15 feet on one side and say 10 feet on the other. This condition has gone on until today there is very little trace of the original lot layout to be found in the business section. (The fire in 1871 may have had something to do with this condition, but there was some tendency toward this before the fire.) This may be due in some extent to the size of the lots, which were too large for ordinary use in a smaller town. Yet when the town grew this splitting which occurred may have been merely the fact that a man wanted a certain amount of property and got it in any way possible.

The first additions to Chicago made before 1850 were laid out into 50 foot lots as a standard. This was probably due to the fact that the 80 foot lots were too large for general uses. These 50 foot lots have passed through much the same development as the 80 foot lots of the original town and the same line of reasoning can be used in this case.

On the north and west sides the lots were between 20 and 30 feet. These lots even today are intact, although often a single building may occupy as high as four or five of these small lots. The reason for the retention of the original lot lines may be the smallness of the lots, or it may be in the fact that even today most of this property is used for residence and not for business. However, where the business has pushed into this district it has not overrun the lot lines to any great extent. On the south side the lots were 75 to 80 feet. These lots often proved to be too large and the result is they were broken up into smaller lots.

For the poorer residential districts the depth of 125 feet is not economical. There are many cases where houses have been built two or three deep in these lots and quite commonly a store occupies the front of the lot and a dwelling the rear. The depth of lot, therefore, depends upon the occupancy.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

CLEVELAND, OHIO

From local observations it seems to be true that when lots are made too large it seems to depreciate the property, inviting as it does the building of buildings in the rear of the lot, as the property is no longer in demand for first class residence purposes. These buildings in the rear of course tend toward congestion and improper building conditions.

KANSAS CITY, MO.

The excessive width of the block (nearly 450 feet) has resulted in the past few years in Van Trump Court, a private way with five cheap apartment houses, and Cherry Lane, a platted "dead end" street serving three duplex houses of a rather good class.

The original subdivision shows the typical 25 foot deep lot platted and used so much in Kansas City at one period, but which has practically been abandoned in residence additions. It will be seen that none of the better houses on Harrison Street used single lots. On Campbell Street, where the houses were less pretentious, the small lot was used.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

As a result of the great depth of lot, purchasers have bought as few front feet as possible and there have developed different classes of narrow, rather long houses. In nearly all cases in Louisville we build single detached dwellings; consequently, when building a detached dwelling on a narrow lot, you have an attenuated affair that must depend for light and air on windows opening into narrow, more or less dark and damp passages. Occasionally in the older portions of the city you will find what is locally called a "double" house, a house open to the front and back but with a blank dividing wall through the center. Such houses therefore can get light from one side only. As this type of house was generally built three or more rooms deep and on narrow lots, we find the troubles of the single house in more intensified form. The inner rooms are dark and there is a lack of air and freshness. Seldom do we find a block of more than two houses attached. In recent years we have the apartment house in all styles and grades, from the converted two or three story single dwelling of former times to the large modern structure of thirty to forty apartments.

In the business portion of the city we find the same general objection to the narrow lot that is found in the residence section. A very deep narrow shop with congestion at entrance and dulness at the distant rear. In order to get any considerable frontage, which in most branches is extremely valuable by reason of the opportunity it gives to display goods to the public, the shopkeeper is forced to

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

the expediency of taking two or more lots, which leaves unused space in the rear. This obviously is a most uneconomical method.

The shortening of lots will no doubt have a tendency to widen them, and do it without unduly increasing the cost of the land. More streets for frontage, combined with fewer and narrower cross or connecting streets, would enable the landowner to do this without a burden on the purchaser and we would have districts that would more nearly retain their value. Under present conditions where a block has been built up we invariably find the same uninviting passages that have a depressing effect on property values, as they impel the residents to abandon their undesirable houses and move out into the newer sections. This tendency is a great economic waste; it reduces the income of the property owner, reduces the city's revenue from taxation and we soon have, if not a slum, at least a most uninviting section that is always retrogressing.

NEW YORK CITY

These widths of blocks are not at all binding in practice, as the lots have been recombined in all sorts of combinations. The results are that we find houses built on lots only 12 feet wide and 100 feet deep, in places.

The minimum practicable lot width for tenements under the present tenement law has become $37\frac{1}{2}$ feet for five and six story tenements or 25 feet for three and four story tenements.

NEWARK, N. J.

It would seem that in establishing these arbitrary standard lot sizes, which prevail in other cities as well as in Newark, we have worked backwards, for in establishing a lot dimension, particularly width, we at once determine to a large extent the structure which must go upon that lot, whereas it would seem to be more logical to regulate the size of lot after having determined the character and best dimensions for the particular structure which is to be built thereon. For dwelling purposes it has been found that detached structures are usually best when lot widths are 25 feet or over — conditions are generally bad when the width is less. A width of 30 feet is advisable. The width of dwellings which adjoin each other should be no less than 20 feet — this would provide for walls, hall and one room — so that only in the case of adjoining dwellings would a subdivision of 20 feet be recommended, and this in turn could profitably be increased to 24 or 25 feet.

With regard to depth of subdivision, it has been found that many of the worst housing conditions in Newark have occurred upon what originally were lots having a depth of 100 feet, due to the fact that the depth has been altered and so-called back lot structures have been erected.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Our studies indicate the present tendencies of land development in Philadelphia and these tendencies are in some respects unfortunate.

The development of the one family house in Philadelphia is especially interesting. In the early growth of the city, houses four stories high with deep lots were built in solid blocks; as the city was extended this type of dwelling gave way to the three story one upon a smaller lot and still later the two story house came largely into vogue. With the change in the type of house there was a corresponding change in the size of the lot, the change being almost invariably toward shallower depths for the row houses. Today the tendency in some sections of the city is to erect the row house upon the shallowest lot permitted.

Some of the early four story houses, which were large and substantial, are now used as boarding houses, apartment houses or lodging houses, and some have been converted to business uses without any change of lot lines, alterations of the fronts and interiors being made to accommodate them to the new use. This occurs in practically every section of the city where local business is encouraged.

Our Study No. 1¹ shows a section in the suburb of Germantown where the properties were originally quite large and were occupied by large mansions. The growth of urban improvements in the vicinity has driven out families who originally occupied this section and the large properties are now being subdivided and converted to the uses of the smaller house as indicated in the study. This form of conversion of use is increasing in some sections of the city.

The attention of your committee is called particularly to Study No. 5,¹ which shows considerable variety in the form of the development, which is an original and comparatively recent one. This study also indicates a method of original subdivision of a large property which now very seldom occurs, as the present practice is for builders to buy a block or more of property, subdivide it into the small lots, erect small houses and sell the properties to individual home owners or investors.

Study No. 16¹ shows the manner in which property is developed into the two story flats, which are becoming popular in certain parts of the city, especially in West Philadelphia, and you will notice that these subdivisions are in form similar to the practice of erecting the one family house and the buildings erected upon them are similar in character to the two story one family house. We do not know of the existence of improvements of this particular type in any other city.

¹ Sketches accompanying local committee report.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

WASHINGTON, D. C.

I will say that I have selected a square that for years has been known as Willow Tree Alley. It is a large square, located near the Botanical Gardens and only a few blocks from the Capitol itself. For a good many years it has been known as one of the worst districts in Washington, with very congested conditions and small houses, in which lived a dangerous and criminal class of people. The square was so large that there were many interior alleys, some known as blind alleys. A few years ago, by congressional enactment, the interior of that square was bought, buildings cleared away and there is now a very fine playground there, leaving the square in this present shape a line of residences on the four sides of the square, the interior being an entirely open space for playground purposes, surrounded by ornamental fences which have been tastefully decorated with plants and vines. The effect has been to eliminate the bad class of population and to make the square now a center for the children in the daytime and for the adults in the evening. It is in a section of the city in which the negroes are the prevailing population.

VEILLER, LAWRENCE

But the far more important determination is the distance between streets: namely, the lot plan and the block plan. To the deep lot we can trace most of our housing evils so far as they relate to land overcrowding.

Résumé

- BERKELEY . . . Lots 150 feet deep produce rear houses
- BROOKLINE . . . Lots even 70 to 80 feet (chiefly above 100) have had rear buildings erected
- CHICAGO . . . 125 feet depth not economical for poor residential districts; 80 feet width too large for general use, even 50 feet is split and redivided, 20 to 30 foot lots being retained
- CLEVELAND . . . "Too large" (deep) lots tend to rear buildings with congestion and depression of value
- KANSAS CITY . . Good residences use wider than 25 feet, poorer ones use 25 feet width
- LOUISVILLE . . Deep lots lead to narrow ones with dark houses, and bad shaped stores; narrow lots with rear dwellings are depressed in value
- NEW YORK . . . Less than 100 feet impracticable for lofts, offices, apartments; also gives bad tenements because no open space in center of block. More than 100 gives narrow bad tenement courts

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

- NEWARK** Lot width tends to determine class of structure.
Narrow lots — narrow houses. 100 feet affords
room for rear tenements
- PHILADELPHIA** . . Single house tendency has dictated lot size, unfortunately. In conversion to business use
original lot lines usually followed, although
often ignored
- VEILLER** Most housing troubles due to deep lots

Conclusions

Lot area seems to be the original determining factor. Deep lots are made narrow; narrow lots lead to narrow buildings — bad for residence or business. Deep lots even down to 70 to 80 feet tend toward having rear buildings — often residences. These conditions lead toward congestion with lowered values.

Except in Philadelphia, lot size has generally influenced building size and number per lot. In Philadelphia desire for single family house has developed small size of lot.

EFFECT OF LOT AND INCIDENTAL BUILDING SIZE ON REAL ESTATE VALUES

BERKELEY, CAL.

HILLEGAS BLOCK

Due to the excessive depth of these lots, whose excess land could not be used for any purpose, rear houses have been erected. These houses are just as large and of the same character as the front houses. Investigation also shows that whenever two or more houses are built on the same lot these belong to the same proprietor.

The value of land has increased considerably since the subdivision of the tract was made. In 1862 the price of land around the Hillegas Tract was \$100 per acre. Today it is a hundred times as much. This is probably due to the topographical location of the block in question, and to the great demand of land in this site.

The value of the land increases as we approach the market centers and decreases as we recede from them.

BROOKLINE, MASS.

It is probable that the average land value for the town increased between 250 and 300 per cent from 1874 to 1913 as compared with an increase of 30 to 40 per cent in the White Farm district. This small increase appears to have been due mainly to the fact that most of the district was largely occupied at the earlier date in such a manner that a low price was almost the only means by which purchasers could be attracted.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

LOUISVILLE, KY.

The building of a cheaper class of dwellings in the alleys such as has resulted in the block under consideration is quite common in Louisville, resulting in an unsanitary condition of affairs that is not only prejudicial to the physical but to the moral health of localities in which it exists.

The shortening of lots will no doubt have a tendency to widen them and do it without unduly increasing the cost of the land. More streets for frontage, combined with fewer and narrower cross or connecting streets, would enable the landowner to do this without a burden on the purchaser and we would have districts that would more nearly retain their value. Under present conditions where a block has been built up we invariably find the same uninviting passages that have a depressing effect on property values, as they impel the residents to abandon their undesirable houses and move out into the newer sections. This tendency is a great economic waste; it reduces the income of the property owner, reduces the city's revenue from taxation and we soon have, if not a slum, at least a most uninviting section that is always retrogressing.

NEW YORK CITY

We took a typical block and drew it out at the same scale for five different periods.

In 1853 the rear portions of the deep lots were used for wash houses or small work houses, but we want particularly to have you note the unrestricted intensive use of some of the lots on the side streets where we find two-family wooden houses, filling the rear portion of the over-deep lots with only a narrow passageway giving access to the street.

We find this same unpleasant feature existing in 1884. The same wooden houses thirty years older but with the value of the property doubled. We find the rise in land values and the depth and narrowness of the lots forcing the erection of tenements four, five and six rooms deep with no light except from the street or from the rear yard.

The minimum practicable lot width for tenements under the present tenement law has become $37\frac{1}{2}$ feet for five and six story tenements or 25 feet for three and four story tenements. The land values in this neighborhood, however, seem to demand at least a five story tenement.

The standard lot width seems to have little or no effect, as they are varied to suit the wishes of the individual property owners.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Within certain limits you are right in assuming that an increase in frontage has a larger influence upon the value of small houses than

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

the increase in the depth of the lot; for instance, while there might be no appreciable difference in the selling value of such a lot having a depth of from 45 to 60 feet, there would be a very appreciable difference in the value between a similar lot having a 14 foot frontage and one having a 15 foot frontage.

Study No. 20¹ is in an old section of West Philadelphia which was built up on what was then the edge of building improvements and at a time when there were no street improvements and when the conditions in the surrounding area were uninviting. The houses were cheap ones built upon small lots, from which the builder realized good profits, but the character of the occupancy of these houses and the lack of care and neglect to make repairs has resulted in serious depreciation during the nearly forty years they have been in use.

It is generally assumed that the useful life of houses of this kind is about fifty years and it generally occurs that after twenty-five years of use they depreciate rapidly and in a majority of instances those properties which represent about the minimum size of lot become slum districts. The buildings are of little value and the territory in which they exist has become to some extent a blighted district.

You no doubt appreciate the fact that the one family row house is being built in great numbers in this city every year and the general tendency of people who can afford to do so is to move from a dwelling which is beginning to deteriorate into newer dwellings where all of the appurtenances and appointments are first class and up to date. This invariably results in a depreciation of values and of rentals and occupancy by a less desirable and less prosperous class of tenants.

Résumé

BERKELEY . . .	Land values are independent of lot or building class and depend on usability of property
BROOKLINE . . .	Poor occupancy restrains rise in values
LOUISVILLE . . .	Building cheap class of houses detrimental to moral health of community. Shallower lots will stabilize values
NEW YORK . . .	Land values are independent of lot or building class and depend on usability of property
PHILADELPHIA . .	Increased frontage has larger effect than depth. Poor occupancy depresses values
WASHINGTON . .	Effect of opening up center of a large block for playground purposes has been to eliminate bad class of population

¹ Sketch accompanying Philadelphia report.

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Conclusions

Where growth is active, either in number of residences or conversion to other uses, the existing lot and building size is of little moment. Where conversion is slower, the larger plots are worth more because more easily converted. Established poor occupancy tends to depress or at least restrain increase of values through natural depreciation and shift of classes of occupants dependent upon condition of dwelling.

EFFECT OF RESTRICTIONS ON CONDITIONS

BERKELEY, CAL.

HILLEGAS BLOCK

When the first subdivision was made there were no restrictions controlling the type or location of the buildings. But it was understood that a fairly good class of residences was required to be built. Consequently houses costing \$1800 to \$2000 were built. These were mostly shingle houses, but lately a higher type of multiple house of stucco has been erected in lot (12). The houses are built almost uniformly 25 feet from the street line. This space is used as a lawn.

BRIDGEPORT, CONN.

One thing, however, is clear, even from a superficial study of land subdivision in its relation to housing, namely, that the worst results usually have not been due to the low standard or the lack of fitness of the subdivision into blocks and lots for its original purpose, but rather to its lack of fitness for the purposes to which there was afterwards an attempt to adapt it; or else to the lack of regulation, or the low standard which the public permitted to be applied. Here I believe public regulation and control would be of great benefit.

In investigating the history of the double lot marked "A," we find that the original houses were owned by Irish who later sold to Slavs. The latter were content to hold to the open development, but not so the Italians, who came into possession in the late nineties. They immediately built a brick three family dwelling in the rear and about a year ago made most remarkable changes. The old house on the west side of the lot was moved to the rear of the original house on the east, two then being joined together as shown. A large brick three story tenement for six families was then erected, leaving as the only open space a little interior courtyard to which an approach 4 feet wide leads between houses.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

A short distance to the northeast was formerly the center of a colored settlement. Shortly after 1884 this settlement, which was

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a growing one, spread out and later overlapped the block, driving out the whites who abandoned their homes to the colored element.

The first encroachment of the colored people caused the building of cheap frame houses for that class fronting on the alley. These are largely individual or two family frame houses. The original houses fronting the surrounding streets were converted, or rather used, as tenements of one or more rooms each, little alteration being made in them.

The section is now given over entirely to colored tenants and the neighborhood has reached a low order when measured by property values.

Owing to the baneful effect the settlement by colored residents has on the market value of real estate in any section in which they begin to come, the city of Louisville, at the urgent request of many property owners in sections threatened by such settlement, passed a segregation ordinance. This ordinance prohibits the occupation by colored people of dwellings in any city block in which the whites are in a majority, at the same time prohibiting the moving of whites into any block in which colored people are in the majority.

NEW YORK CITY.

One of the greatest difficulties as brought out by this map is the harm done in the rest of the block by the incursion of factory lofts, warehouses or stables which cover almost the whole plot, contributing nothing to the light and air space in the center of the block.

NEWARK, N. J.

While it is desirable to have a depth of 100 feet, it appears that some restriction, more stringent than that now enforced, should be established which would prohibit these undesirable back lot buildings.

Two of the studies presented above show that in sections equally distant from the center of the city land values have actually stood still for the past twenty-five years, while the normal increase for the entire city during that time has been somewhat over 200 per cent. The third section, however, shows that in a residential district, the same distance from the center of the city as the other two, land values have increased to a greater extent than that of the average increase for the city. The apparent reason for the increase in the residential section is that more or less stringent restrictions have apparently been enforced by the private owners. It would seem that the reason for the non-increase in value in the first two sections is apparently due to promiscuous development which has lead to the intermingling of tenements, factories, stores, stables, etc. This chaos is typical of the foreign quarters not alone of Newark but in other cities, and can be explained apparently by the fact that there has been a lack of restriction by competent authority. While building

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

codes, tenement house laws, etc., prohibit much undesirable housing, it is only through the restrictions established by private owners that good developments are carried out. Herein seems to lie not only the advisability but even the necessity for restrictions to be enforced by the municipality or other competent authority.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Methods of development will change very materially if "zoning" should become a general practice, and this possibility should be seriously considered in connection with any change in the practices of land subdivision.

A section of this city once occupied by its first families is now largely occupied by the foreign element and once handsome residences have become almost, if not quite, slums; on the other hand, some of our smallest dwellings are perfectly sanitary and wholesome places in which to live. Land subdivision in itself, without proper control of the occupancy and use of the land and without the enforcement of proper health and sanitary regulations, would scarcely have any large influence in raising the physical, intellectual or moral standards of a community.

Résumé

BERKELEY . . .	Voluntary restriction works well toward increasing values
BRIDGEPORT . .	Lack of restrictions permitted bad housing conditions to grow
LOUISVILLE . .	Colored problem has dictated restrictions
NEW YORK . . .	Lack of restriction as to per cent of lot area covered has been detrimental
NEWARK	Restricted districts have increased in value, others have not
PHILADELPHIA .	Zoning will materially affect problem

Conclusions

Legal restrictions as to per cent of lot which may be covered, shape of courts and locations of buildings on lots, must be added to conditioning lot sizes if best results are to be attained.

ALLEYS

CHICAGO, ILL.

For the better class of residences, lots of this depth are not too deep. As the Chicago blocks are divided longitudinally by alleys, it gives an opportunity for the garages or stables to be reached through the alleys without the need of entrance drives between the houses.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

DETROIT, MICH.

The blocks in subdivisions range from 400 to 600 feet in length, with the streets or avenues 50 to 66 feet in width, from lot line to lot line. Each block has a 20 foot "H" shaped alley, which permits the facing of the lots on the four streets in the block, and allowing for an alley in the rear of each lot.

KANSAS CITY, MO.

The excessive width of the block (nearly 450 feet) has resulted in the past few years in Van Trump Court, a private way with five cheap apartment houses, and Cherry Lane, a platted "dead end" street serving three duplex houses of a rather good class.

It might be added that there has been as yet comparatively little development in the way of courts or private ways in Kansas City, and that this block is wider than the average.

Alleys, which are not now used in the better residence additions here, were then considered a necessity.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

This portion of the city is practically level and is laid out on the gridiron plan. The block is 420 by 420 feet on property lines with streets 60 feet wide on all sides.

The lots fronting on Chestnut and Magazine streets were originally 200 feet deep, abutting on what is locally termed a blind alley, i. e., opened at one end. This alley is 20 feet wide.

The first encroachment of the colored people caused the building of cheap frame houses for that class fronting on the alley.

The law also prohibits the building of a tenement house in an alley unless there is left at least 25 feet from the front line of the tenement to the property line on the opposite side of alley. A single house or two family tenement may be built on an alley of any width provided six feet is left between the front of building and the property line. As some of our alleys are only 10 feet wide it can happen that a two family tenement might be built within 16 feet of a building on the opposite side of alley.

We might add that it is almost the invariable custom in Louisville to provide alleys in all of its city blocks varying in width from 10 to 20 feet. Very few blocks in the older parts of the city are without alleys and it is very difficult to wean the people away from them. Of late years, however, the sentiment in this respect is changing, some of the later subdivisions being without alleys. The improvement has been noted and many of our city builders are predicting the general adoption of the newer custom.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

VEILLER, LAWRENCE

The alley is both a blessing and a curse. As a means of letting light and air into the interior of city blocks that would otherwise be without it, it is a distinct gain. And the few cities that have no alleys feel their misfortune in this regard most keenly. The small, pocketed back yards, shut away from the free current of air, are unknown in the city with alleys. The alley is generally, however, an evil. As a minor street, hidden away at the rear of everything, it becomes the dumping-ground for all the cast-off material of humanity. Here will be found collected, in all stages of picturesque disorder and sordid squalor, all of the unpleasant things of our material existence.

Of the forty-five cities which made returns to the questionnaire, above referred to, twenty-five, or over half, reported that a system of alleys was general in their community. It is interesting to find that in several of them, as in Cleveland and Kansas City, Mo., for instance, they report that in the old part of the city the alley system is general, but that alleys do not exist in the new.

Résumé

CHICAGO	Alleys deliberately designed
DETROIT	Alleys deliberately designed
KANSAS CITY . . .	In very large blocks, alleys have been used
LOUISVILLE . . .	Large blocks had alleys (sometimes blind). They had poor quality structures erected on them. Modern tendencies are away from use of alleys
VEILLER	25 cities deliberately designed alleys

Conclusions

Efforts to make use of waste land in deep lots was one cause of alleys
In some cities they were deliberately designed
Their presence, whether deliberate or evolutionary, is bad as now
used

STANDARD DIMENSIONS

BERKELEY, CAL.

HILLEGAS BLOCK

Diagram 3¹ represents suggestions and recommendations for an ideal and practical subdivision of the block in question.

For the purpose of one house a lot 40 by 100 feet is used.

The area thus left vacant because of the excessive depth of the block is converted into a block playground.

¹ Accompanying Berkeley report.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

CHICAGO, ILL.

The depth of the present day typical lot is 125 feet. This has been the standard depth for more than forty years.

For the better class of residences, lots of this depth are not too deep. As the Chicago blocks are divided longitudinally by alleys, it gives an opportunity for the garages or stables to be reached through the alleys without the need of entrance drives between the houses.

For business blocks this depth is good, for it permits the construction of buildings around ample courtyards. This remark applies also to the better class apartment houses.

For the poorer residential districts the depth of 125 feet is not economical. There are many cases where houses have been built two or three deep in these lots and quite commonly a store occupied the front of the lot and a dwelling the rear. The depth of lot, therefore, depends upon the occupancy.

As dwellings give way to business the greater depth is justified.

NEW YORK CITY

The theory of this arrangement of blocks and lots is based on the idea that the minimum dimension of streets must be 50 or 60 feet, in order to take care of the future traffic. For traffic reasons there is also a limit to the practicable length of blocks. The result was that it was soon found that if the land for sale was going to be in any just proportion to the land in the streets, a depth of less than 100 feet would be impracticable.

Our problem in New York is as follows: could the lot be any shallower, or could the lot be wider, or could the streets be narrower under New York conditions? Even as it is now the streets occupy from 35 to 40 per cent of the space occupied by buildings, or between 25 and 30 per cent of the total area. The New York lot is based on local usages and customs and is designed with a particular view to convertibility, for taking care of growth and change of use. A less depth than 100 feet would be impracticable for the larger offices, stores, factories, warehouses, hotels, apartment houses, etc. However, when we come to examine the few lots which are deeper than 100 feet we find that they bring about the erection of tenements with unpleasantly narrow and deep courts, and that they have no other advantage except for certain types of manufacture. When we come to lots less than 100 feet deep we find that the common tendency is to build them leaving no light and air space in the center of the block.

NEWARK, N. J.

In attempting to establish any fixed dimensions for land subdivision — particularly for dwelling purposes — it must be borne in

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mind that a very definite relation exists between width and depth, which relation can only be established after the best dimensions of the structure are determined — these in turn being governed by the size and arrangement of rooms, halls, stairs and walls. It would therefore seem logical to first determine what are the best standard room dimensions and arrangement to adopt under various conditions before attempting to fix standard size for land subdivisions.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

It has appeared to us that one of the chief objects of this investigation should be to recommend, and if possible obtain, such control as will provide for methods of subdivision which will not only be more economical in the subdivision of land for the original purposes for which it is to be used, but will encourage better housing, better neighborhood surroundings, larger opportunities for practical and progressive city planning and greater permanence and stability of urban improvements.

VEILLER, LAWRENCE

Realizing, however, the tendencies that will be at work in future years even in the best residence sections of cities, it is the part of wisdom to establish as the standard a lot of the shallowest depth practicable. What that depth should be will, of course, vary in each community. In general, the owner will desire to have a spacious front yard, a building sufficiently deep to meet his demands, a spacious back yard and generally room for a garage or stable at the extreme rear of the lot. This means a lot generally speaking of 125 feet in depth.

What is the desirable lot unit for a tenement section? My answer is a lot unit which will result in houses not more than two rooms deep.

For our large cities and for our industrial towns I believe the lots should not exceed in depth 25 or 30 feet. This means that there would be no front yard and no back yard; that the houses, built in continuous rows, would have one frontage on one street and another frontage on another street.

But for the ordinary laborer, especially the large foreign population which is coming to predominate in our American cities, the detached house is not desirable. In the first place we should frankly recognize that the common unskilled laborer of the type just described cannot afford to pay for the vacant land at the front and rear of his dwelling. It is too great a drain upon his scant income.

It will be seen from a consideration of questions involved that the desirable depth of lot depends largely on the uses to which the neighborhood is to be put. For high class residence purposes lots should be 125 feet deep; for the homes of the better paid artisans and me-

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

chanics lots should be 50 feet deep; for the homes of the unskilled laborer and what we call the "poor" the lots should be 25 feet in depth.

Résumé

BERKELEY	110 feet depth used in ideal rearrangement
CHICAGO	125 feet depth except poorer residential sections
NEW YORK	100 feet depth best for convertibility
NEWARK	House with proper size and arrangement of rooms should be the basis
PHILADELPHIA . .	Desires a standard
VEILLER	Shallowest possible (high class residence 125; middle class residence 50; poor class residence 25)

Conclusions

A standard is exceedingly desirable.

100 to 125 feet is apparent aim of best standardized conditions and of present tendencies. It is divisible according to Veiller.

Restrictions should be imposed in any event.

STREETS

KANSAS CITY, MO.

The original lots were made to face east and west, but on account of the importance of 3d and 4th streets (leading to the business center) most of the buildings on the corner lots face upon these streets; in fact it will be seen that a re-division of $\frac{1}{2}$ block was made previous to 1881, recognizing the importance of the east and west streets. This re-division was probably made previous to 1870 or perhaps 1860.

Troost Avenue is a section line, and since about 1890 has had street car service, the terminus for awhile being 33d, which caused somewhat of a business center to spring up there. About 1890 or previous some very fine residences were built on Troost Avenue in the block north, establishing this as a high class district.

Between 1900 and 1905 Linwood Avenue was transformed into Linwood Boulevard, now one of the most traveled boulevards of the city. This increased the value of the property, making it too valuable for residences. High class family hotels, clubs, churches and apartments have since been built on the boulevard. Two hotels are shown in this block. Troost Avenue has been transformed into a local business center with garages, stores, moving picture theaters, etc.

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Ninth and Tenth streets are more important than Harrison and Campbell, because they lead directly to the retail district. The natural tendency for the houses at the ends of the block to front the important street is shown. The buildings at the southwest corner of the block are cheap one story houses; those at the northeast corner, flats; and the remainder, with the exception of the large church, are residences. Those facing on 10th Street and many of those on Campbell are occupied by negroes.

NEW YORK CITY

We find the rise in land values and the depth and narrowness of the lots forcing the erection of tenements four, five and six rooms deep with no light except from the street or from the rear yard.

Large stable and factory units have also appeared in the block, each covering from two to four lots.

Bleecker Street has become almost exclusively a business street. West Third Street has also, due to the elevated railroad which was built there in 1878.

The tallest buildings are only six and seven stories high as the land values do not warrant the erection of higher buildings.

The land values in this neighborhood, however, seem to demand at least a five story tenement.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Some time subsequent to the erection of the buildings upon Poplar and Wyalusing streets, the local station which had been maintained by the Pennsylvania Railroad at Fortieth Street, about 300 feet south of Penn Grove Street, was abandoned, and this resulted in many of the residents removing to sections of the city where the transportation facilities were better, although there are a number of surface lines to different parts of the city passing along Girard Avenue which is one square north of Poplar Street. The people who subsequently moved into the neighborhood were not so well off and when the properties fronting on Penngrave Street were erected the same class of people occupied them. The general character of the neighborhood fell off somewhat, which accounts for the depreciation in values and of rents in this particular neighborhood.

As a rule the operative builders find much larger demand for the small houses on intermediate streets than they do for the larger and more expensive ones on main streets and they have been much more successful in educating people to be contented with the minimum size yard than the city planning authorities have been in educating them to a desire for larger yard areas.

It has become an almost invariable custom in Philadelphia, under our system of establishing the street system far in advance of im-

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provements, for the first improvement to be of a character that lasts for a great many years; these improvements are in the form of the single family row house, the detached, or semi-detached dwelling and the single residence of a higher type which is erected in some suburban sections, the class first mentioned being greatly in the majority.

Résumé

(a) *Width*

(See alleys and their effect)

PHILADELPHIA . . Width determines early development

(b) *Character*

PHILADELPHIA . . Greater demand off main streets

(c) *Direction*

KANSAS CITY . . Direction (toward business district) has effect on values

(d) *Traffic*

KANSAS CITY . . Amount and kind of travel influences use and values

NEW YORK . . .

(e) *Transportation Facilities*

PHILADELPHIA . . Values fell off with poorer transportation facilities

Conclusions

Streets of alley width affect conditions and values

Philadelphia narrow lots are on narrow streets by preference.

(Average 30 St. 14 lot, 40 St. 15.5 lot, 60 St. 16.6 lot, except 1 at 60 and 1 at 100, 80 St. 20 lot, except 1 at 60)

Streets leading to business center or having much traffic have greater values and more expensive structures

APPENDIX B

TABULATION OF RESULTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE CONSTITUTION AND POWERS OF A CITY PLANNING AUTHORITY

The Committee on Administrative Procedure sent out a questionnaire in relation to the constitution and powers of a city planning authority to 246 individuals and city planning commissions; 80 replies were received from the following:

- Thomas Adams, Towning Planning Adviser, Commission of Conservation, Ottawa, Canada.
- A. H. Andrews, Executive Secretary, Chamber of Commerce, New Britain, Conn.
- Carol Aronovici, Director, Bureau of Social Research, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Roger N. Baldwin, Secretary, Civic League, St. Louis, Mo.
- Harland Bartholomew, Secretary, City Plan Commission, Newark, N. J.
- Edward M. Bassett, Chairman, Commission on Building Districts and Restrictions, New York.
- E. H. Bennett, Architect, Chicago, Ill.
- G. Frank Beer, Toronto Housing Co., Toronto, Canada.
- Alfred Bettman, Lawyer, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Arthur C. Comey, Commissioner, Homestead Commission, Boston, Mass.
- Otto W. Davis, Secretary, Committee on Housing, Civic and Commerce Association, Minneapolis, Minn.
- John M. Demarest, General Manager, Sage Foundation Homes Co., Forest Hills, L. I.
- Richard C. Derby, Real Estate Operator, Newport, R. I.
- Chas. E. Esterbrook, Lawyer, Milwaukee, Wis.
- Paul L. Feiss, Member, Chamber of Commerce, Cleveland, Ohio.
- Mayo Fesler, Secretary, Civic League, Cleveland, Ohio.
- Edwin A. Fisher, Consulting Engineer to City of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.

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- Andrew J. Gavett, City Surveyor and Street Commissioner, Plainfield, N. J.
- Charles E. Gibson, Chairman, Newton City Planning Board, Newton, Mass.
- E. P. Goodrich, Consulting Engineer, Borough of Manhattan, New York.
- J. H. Gundlach, Vice-Chairman, City Plan Commission, St. Louis, Mo.
- B. A. Haldeman, Assistant Engineer, Bureau of Surveys, Philadelphia, Pa.
- S. Herbert Hare, Landscape Architect, Kansas City, Mo.
- Edward R. Hathaway, Mayor, New Bedford, Mass.
- Munson Havens, Secretary, Chamber of Commerce, Cleveland, Ohio.
- R. W. Hemphill, Jr., Division Manager, Eastern Michigan Edison Co., Ann Arbor, Mich.
- E. M. Herlihy, Secretary, City Planning Board, Boston, Mass.
- Edwin S. Herman, President, City Planning Commission, Harrisburg, Pa.
- Robert Hoffman, Commissioner and Chief Engineer, Department of Public Service, Cleveland, Ohio.
- George E. Hooker, Civic Secretary, City Club, Chicago, Ill.
- Richard M. Hurd, President, Lawyers Mortgage Co., New York City.
- Stanley H. Hutchinson, Executive Secretary, Board of Trade, Franklin, Pa.
- John Ihlder, Field Secretary, National Housing Association, New York City.
- F. Ellis Jackson, Architect, Providence, R. I.
- Fred W. Keller, Mayor, South Bend, Ind.
- Robert D. Kohn, Architect, New York City.
- A. J. Lawton, Commissioner, Public Works and Property, Colorado Springs, Col.
- Meyer Lissner, Lawyer, Los Angeles, Cal.
- W. S. Mackendrick, Toronto, Canada.
- Milo R. Maltbie, Member, Advisory Commission on City Plan, New York City.
- H. J. March, Civil Engineer, Utility Engineering Co., New Brunswick, N. J.
- Benjamin C. Marsh, Secretary, Congestion Committee, New York City.
- Henry H. Meyers, Secretary, Advisory City Plan Commission, Alameda, Cal.
- Cyrus C. Miller, Chairman, Executive Committee, Advisory Council of Real Estate Interests, New York City.
- Leslie W. Miller, Secretary, Fairmount Park Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

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- E. T. Mische, Park Board, Portland, Ore.
Clifford B. Moore, Consulting Engineer, Borough of Queens, New York.
J. C. Murphy, Architect, Louisville, Ky.
J. J. Murphy, Commissioner, Tenement House Department, New York City.
W. M. O'Shaughnessy, City Engineer, Department of Public Works, San Francisco, Cal.
Charles H. Parsons, Chairman, Planning Commission, Springfield, Mass.
T. Glenn Phillips, Secretary, City Plan and Improvement Commission, Detroit, Mich.
Allen B. Pond, Architect, Chicago, Ill.
A. J. Porter, President, Shredded Wheat Co., Niagara Falls, N. Y.
Frederic B. Pratt, President, Brooklyn Committee on City Plan, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Charles F. Puff, Jr., Surveyor and Regulator, Department of Public Works, Philadelphia, Pa.
Edward K. Putnam, Real Estate, Davenport, Iowa.
J. R. Reynolds, Secretary, City Plan Commission, Erie, Pa.
Chas. Mulford Robinson, Specialist in Town Planning, Rochester, N. Y.
Morris R. Sherrerd, Chief Engineer, Department of Public Works, Newark, N. J.
William C. Stanton, Secretary, Department of Public Works, Philadelphia, Pa.
John K. Stauffer, Secretary, City Planning Commission, Reading, Pa.
Frank Stevens, Jersey City, N. J.
Vincent S. Stevens, Secretary, Chamber of Commerce, Akron, Ohio.
C. A. Sundstrom, Bureau of Surveys, Department of Public Works, Philadelphia, Pa.
H. E. Sweet, Mayor, Attleboro, Mass.
Howard E. Taylor, Secretary, Board of Trade, Pittsfield, Mass.
Alfred H. Terry, City Engineer, Bridgeport, Conn.
Town Planning Board, Watertown, Mass.
Louis L. Tribus, Consulting Engineer, New York City.
D. L. Turner, Deputy Engineer, Subway Construction, Public Service Commission, New York.
George W. Tuttle, Principal Assistant Engineer, Topographical Bureau, Borough of Richmond, New York.
Richard B. Watrous, Secretary, American Civic Association, Washington, D. C.
A. L. White, President, Park Board, Spokane, Wash.
G. Gordon Whitnall, Secretary, City Planning Commission, Los Angeles, Cal.

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W. S. Willigerod, City Engineer, East Orange, N. J.

L. D. Woodworth, Secretary, Garfield Real Estate Co., Rochester, N. Y.

Henry C. Wright, Commissioner, Department of Public Charities, New York City.

Phelps Wyman, Landscape Architect, Minneapolis, Minn.

Question 1. — Should some single city planning office or authority be created in each city with at least the following powers and duties?

(a) The adoption and revision of a tentative plan for the physical development of the city.

(b) The correlation of particular improvements, by whatever authority originated, with the requirements of the comprehensive plan.

There were 80 replies, of which 79 were in favor of a single planning office or authority with the powers specified, and one, while in favor of a city planning office or authority, suggested that in a large city there might be several city planning authorities, one in each borough or appropriate local subdivision.

EXTRACTS FROM CERTAIN REPLIES TO QUESTION 1

THOMAS ADAMS, *Ottawa, Canada:*

Yes; but a tentative plan would be of no practical value beyond being an illustration for the guidance of a city or town authority. As the latter should, however, be an executive body, it should prepare no tentative plan, except under legislative powers which would protect its interests while proceeding from the tentative to the definite stage of planning.

WILLIAM C. STANTON, *Philadelphia, Pa.:*

(a) It is advisable that a city planning office or authority should be created in every city, particularly in those having a form of government resulting from time to time in complete changes of administration with the officials holding their office for a relatively short time. Such city planning authority should be composed of members whose terms would overlap, affording opportunity for a continuous scheme of development. The adoption and revision of an elastic tentative plan for the physical development of the city is quite necessary and should be prepared to meet the necessities of the municipality for a period of from 15 to 50 years in advance, depending upon the size and growth of the locality.

(b) All improvements contemplated, either in the immediate future or at a later period, should be incorporated in such a comprehensive plan, which should be of such elasticity as readily to be modi-

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fied to meet the average unforeseen emergency. In the preparation of such a plan careful attention should be paid to the larger principles, leaving the details to be perfected at a time when the permanent improvements are undertaken. By following such procedure — although the first cost in some instances may be greater — there will result eventually a considerable economy through the avoiding of needless repetition and overlapping of improvements and developments.

LOUIS L. TRIBUS, *New York City*:

There can be no adequate comprehensive plan for New York City, for long before any really intelligent plan has been worked out, the generation desiring to act under one will have died and new ideas will prevail; consequently advisory powers only need be vested in a commission.

Question 2. — Should the creation of a city planning authority be made mandatory or permissive?

Seventy-six replies were received; 45 favored making the creation of a city planning authority mandatory; 2 favored the mandatory method in case the city planning authority had merely advisory powers; 25 favored the permissive method and 4 the permissive method at first, but eventually the mandatory method.

EXTRACTS FROM CERTAIN REPLIES TO QUESTION 2

ALFRED BETTMAN, *Cincinnati, Ohio*:

In so far as any particular municipality is concerned, the creation of a city planning authority should be permissive. This is upon general home rule principles and not peculiar to city planning. The charter of a city, adopted by the people of that city, should make the creation of such an authority mandatory.

ARTHUR C. COMEY, *Boston, Mass.*:

I favor the permissive city planning authority if that authority is to be given extensive powers, which are mentioned in the circular and which I also favor. If the city planning authority, so called, is to be merely an advisory board, as it is at present in Massachusetts, I favor following the Massachusetts precedent of making such boards mandatory. While their value in the early stages of city planning is great, I am convinced that ultimately they will prove an inefficient means of promoting city planning.

JOHN J. MURPHY, *New York City*:

The creation of a city planning authority ought to be mandatory. I do not think this is a violation of the policy of home rule any more

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than is the requirement that a city shall have regular officials for the operation of orderly government. The principle of home rule is not invaded by the creation of necessary or desirable authorities which, in the judgment of the state, are necessary for the welfare of those citizens residing in municipalities. It is when the legislature either attempts to prescribe who shall be the members of such bodies or what they shall do that the home rule principle is vitiated. I do not think therefore, in view of the important work which a city planning committee can do, that there should be serious objection to making it a mandatory requirement. This is especially true in view of the necessity for the work of the committee being consistent and continuous.

ALLEN B. POND, *Chicago, Ill.:*

In my judgment the city planning art and the general knowledge thereof have not reached a point in America where it is wise or safe to make it mandatory that every community, even of a certain minimum size, should establish such an authority. America has not learned to appreciate the value and function of expert service, has not learned correctly to pass on qualifications for expert service. So far as town planning is concerned, much of the work that has been suggested thus far in America is, in my judgment, superficial in character, dealing largely with esthetic features and with city planning viewed from a scenic standpoint rather than from its fundamental relations to the functioning of a city organism. For these reasons I do not think that the time is ripe for a mandatory law, however desirable such law may seem on a priori grounds. We may hope, even though we may not justly presume, that any community which seeks to adopt by referendum a permissive law will have reached a stage in its comprehension of the subject such that it may be given power under a permissive act.

G. GORDON WHITNALL, *Los Angeles, Cal.:*

In cities of large proportions or having the physical probabilities of at some time becoming large, the creation of the authority should be mandatory, as a general rule. A lack of such authority results inevitably in certain community "diseases" that have a definite undesirable influence on the collective individual life of the community. A municipality should be compelled to consider such conditions just as much as the lesser evils of contagion where, if the city does not act, the power higher up steps in.

Question 3. — Should the city planning authority, in order to carry out its function of correlating the particular improvement with the requirements of the comprehensive plan, be given

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- (a) An absolute veto?
- (b) A veto that may be overridden by vote of council or other authority?
- (c) Merely the opportunity to investigate and report?
- (d) A combination of the above, i. e., an absolute veto in certain cases and merely an opportunity to present a report in other cases?

Seventy-four replies were received; 9 favored merely advisory powers; 7 favored absolute veto; 28 favored a veto that could be overridden by vote of council or other authority, and 30 favored some combination of the above methods.

EXTRACTS FROM CERTAIN REPLIES TO QUESTION 3

HARLAND BARTHOLOMEW, *Newark, N. J.*:

A veto that may be overridden by vote of council or other authority. A city planning authority is usually appointive, seldom, if ever, elective. To invest it with power of absolute veto would be contrary to the principles of good government. Power to investigate only is insufficient and tends to belittle the authority and its position. A veto that may be overridden by vote of council or other authority is more nearly in accord with sensible government and will generally work out satisfactorily, provided the city planning authority will qualify its recommendations with a clear and concise statement of how and why these conclusions have been reached. This custom prevails in Newark and has succeeded in instances too numerous to mention.

E. H. BENNETT, *Chicago, Ill.*:

A veto that may be overridden by vote of council is in all probability to be preferred. The experience in Chicago has shown very clearly that veto power in some form or other is desirable, as it is necessary for a plan commission to have such standing as will enable it to be recognized and not be put in the position of wasting its strength fighting for recognition.

ALFRED BETTMAN, *Cincinnati, Ohio*:

I think the device which was worked out in the proposed charter for the city of Cincinnati is the best. It provides for a veto that may be overridden by a vote of council, the vote of at least two-thirds of the membership being required for overruling the disapproval of the planning commission. In addition to this vote of council there is also required, to overrule the commission, the vote of the head of the particular department under which the proposed improvement falls. The theory back of this device is obviously that separate de-

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partments in a city government, which have absolute powers independent of each other and independent of the main administration and council, are apt to tend to delay, inefficiency and even worse evils, and that, where the administrative and legislative functions are kept separate, there should be at least one point in the administrative departments, and one point in the legislative department, where control and responsibility finally concentrate for the whole city program and finance. Therefore, if the head of the department under which the proposed improvement falls and two-thirds of the council are agreed upon disagreeing with the city planning commission, the latter's desires should not prevail. Our belief in this arrangement is not the result of any experience with city planning, for Cincinnati has as yet had little experience with city planning. It is the result of observation of the working of the city government generally.

ARTHUR C. COMEX, *Boston, Mass.:*

I do not believe in absolute veto, inasmuch as the council might abolish a planning board and pass ordinances before reinstating it, as has been done in the case of art commissions. I do favor the veto which may be overridden by vote of the council, as the council will naturally hesitate to do this except in extreme cases.

MAYO FESLER, *Cleveland, Ohio:*

I am not sure that the city planning commission should be given an absolute veto. It should require at least a majority vote of the council to override its action. It should probably have an absolute veto on questions of design and location and the power to make specific recommendations for a broader city plan.

CHARLES E. GIBSON, *Newton, Mass.:*

The possession of the veto power in any degree would add a new and confusing element in the organization of municipalities, an element directly contrary to the present tendency in municipal administration reform, which is toward small legislative bodies and concentrated executive powers. The possession of the veto power would immediately raise acutely the question whether the planning board should be appointed or elected. If it possesses the veto power, it would almost necessarily become one of the strongest forces in municipal government. We believe that, so long as a planning board has merely advisory powers which it exercises with ability and sound judgment, it is freer in action and its opinion will have greater weight.

B. A. HALDEMAN, *Philadelphia, Pa.:*

The city planning authority should have power of absolute confirmation in certain kinds of improvements and should have power to

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investigate and report upon such improvements as may not be an essential part of the tentative plan itself, but may have considerable influence in the effectual carrying out of the purposes of the plan.

EDWARD R. HATHAWAY, *New Bedford, Mass.:*

Theoretically the idea of a city planning board appeals to me, as it undoubtedly does to every other city executive. So far as matters of investigation and report are concerned, I am willing to agree that such a board would be of practical advantage. Government in this country, as I understand the principle, is government by the people, and this means all the people. Naturally those who are elected by the people should be willing to seek and consider advice from a thinking group of public spirited citizens, who may be appointed a planning board or who may act from individual initiative, but I firmly believe that the time has not come when the powers of the people to govern themselves, in whatever direction they deem wise, should be taken from them; and at the present time the officers elected by the people are fully able to care for the civic problems which are liable to arise.

S. HERBERT HARE, *Kansas City, Mo.:*

The city planning authority, in order to carry out its function, should be given a power which would be stronger than merely an investigation and report. On the other hand the power of absolute veto would be too strong in cases where the city planning department comes under the control of political factions or other interests, as may be expected in some cases. Again, errors of judgment are always liable to be made in the most conscientious work. In place of the combination suggested under subhead (d) I would suggest a combination of (a) and (b), that is, of absolute veto in certain cases and a veto that may be overridden by a decisive vote of council or other authority in other cases.

ROBERT HOFFMAN, *Cleveland, Ohio:*

It seems somewhat inconsistent to me to establish a city planning authority with absolute power to inaugurate or prevent undertakings at variance with those possibly being carried out by elective authorities or not in compliance with the sentiment of the majority. It would seem that method (d), namely, "an absolute veto in certain cases and merely an opportunity to present a report in other cases," would probably prove equally effective and meet with less opposition than with the other suggestions made.

JOHN IHLDER, *New York City:*

(a) Should not be an absolute veto. City planning is too new for us to be very rigid in our requirements. First, we cannot yet be sure

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that the boards themselves will always decide wisely. Second, and quite as important, we cannot be sure that the people will back them up in their decisions, especially in cases where there is a plausible reason for some public improvement which will serve an immediate need, but will be a decided detriment, or a cause of considerable wasted energy and money, when considered as part of the whole city plan. So it seems to me it would be wiser to permit of considerable flexibility for a few years while both the boards and the people are learning the practical value of city planning and learning how to apply it.

(b) Yes. A veto that may be overridden by vote of council or other authority gives the city planning board enough power to make its members feel that they are doing something practical and yet does not enable them to stop public improvements arbitrarily and without the consent of other authorities. During these first years at least, it seems to me, the city planning board should carry its points by weight of argument and reason rather than by the exercise of power. A conditional veto, such as this, will force the other authorities to listen to the city planning board's reasons.

HON. WILLIAM A. MAGEE, *Pittsburgh, Pa.*¹

I feel that the commission ought to have some measure of control over all projects which affect the physical growth of the city. This power should not be absolute. I think the proper measure of control would be effected by requiring the reconsideration on the part of the councilmen or aldermen of those ordinances which have been vetoed by the commission. The real value of the veto lies in the fact that the attention of the public is attracted to another view of the question. If the opinions of the planning commission on the vetoed ordinances have merit, no doubt enough public attention to the matter will be attracted by the publication of the planning commission's veto message. The final judgment of the councilmen or aldermen, therefore, will be based not only on having two views of the matter presented to them, but the views of the planning commission will be fortified to the extent of their value by expressions of public opinion through the newspapers and other media of public expression.

WILLIAM C. STANTON, *Philadelphia, Pa.*:

(a) All city planning authority should be chosen from among the type of men which represents the highest, most intellectual and broadest minded citizens or officials of the communities in question.

¹ See "Proceedings of the Fifth National Conference on City Planning, May 5-7, 1913."

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They should be given certain powers, but it is rather difficult to decide upon what questions an absolute veto should be in their hands.

(b) A veto that may be overridden by veto of council or other authority. Such vote of the representatives of the people is, while valuable, nevertheless not conducive to the best results, as often the citizens or other representatives are not sufficiently conversant with the technical problems to be dealt with as should be the members of a city planning commission, and such action is a serious reflection upon the intelligence of men who have presumably given deep consideration to the various problems.

(c) A city planning commission with no authority other than that of investigation, while of a certain value, is nevertheless laboring under a severe disadvantage in that they may spend considerable time and go to some expense in making investigations only to have their recommendations ignored. As most of these city planning commissions serve "gratis," it is apt to be most discouraging to the members if they have no way of enforcing their views.

(d) A combination of the above, having a committee clothed with absolute powers in certain cases and modified powers in others, might be a proper solution.

ALLEN B. POND, *Chicago, Ill.*:

In my judgment the authority should be given an absolute veto, not one that may be overridden by vote of council or other authority. The most that should be granted in the way of outside interference should be a stop order which will enforce, if the city council or other constituted authority should think necessary, a delay, consultation with other experts and a public hearing; but the constituted authority should have full power to act after such delay, consultation and hearing. It would, in my judgment, be fatal to allow passing (temporary) elected officials or officials appointed for other reasons to challenge successfully decisions of a proper expert body, and no city plan authority should be created except with a full view to the scope of its power and the consequent necessity that its personnel be men of suitable attainments and high character.

Question 4.—Should the comprehensive tentative plan include the following?

- (a) Street system.
- (b) Park and playground system.
- (c) Transit system.
- (d) Grouping of public buildings.
- (e) Rail and water terminals.
- (f) Markets.

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(g) Districting of city for purpose of regulating the height, area and use of buildings.

(h) What other matters should be included?

Seventy-four replies were received, all but one of which agreed that the items indicated in (a) to (g) inclusive should be included in the comprehensive plan. The one objection was to districting of the city for the purpose of regulating the height, area and use of buildings. Various other matters were suggested by one or two individuals for inclusion in the comprehensive plan, such as water and sewer systems, disposal of waste and garbage, water fronts, preservation of places of natural beauty or historic interest, regulation of advertising signs, construction and location of wires and poles, location of underground structures, bridges, cemeteries, fire safety and housing.

Question 5. — Should the function of an art jury or commission be combined with those of a city planning authority?

Seventy-one replies were received; 32 were opposed to the combination of an art jury with the city planning authority; 9 were opposed to such combination, except for small cities, and 30 favored the combination.

EXTRACTS FROM CERTAIN REPLIES TO QUESTION 5

THOMAS ADAMS, *Ottawa, Canada:*

If architectural control is sought in a scheme, the best system of control is through a consultative architect or permanent official architect of the local authority, with an art commission as a body of appeal on architectural and similar points instead of a court of law.

ROGER N. BALDWIN, *St. Louis, Mo.:*

We believe here that the art commission should be entirely separate from the city plan commission as the functions are quite different. A group of persons passing upon a public improvement from the point of view of its appearance has entirely different considerations in mind than from one passing upon it from the point of view of its utility and place in a general plan.

CHARLES E. GIBSON, *Newton, Mass.:*

The answer to this question depends very largely upon the size and character of the city affected. In a small city having few problems for an art commission, a special commission would seem to be unnecessary. In a large city, or one where many problems of artistic character were under consideration, a separate commission should be appointed. The practical engineering, health and business problems

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appropriate to a planning board call for different qualities than those required by an art commission. Close coöperation should be secured between two such bodies.

ROBERT HOFFMAN, *Cleveland, Ohio:*

I see no reason why the city planning authority should not assume the functions of an art jury or commission. This would not necessarily mean that the members themselves should pass upon matters of art, but that they could have power to provide for the establishment of an advisory commission, as the same might be required.

JOHN IHLDER, *New York City:*

The function of an art jury or commission should not be combined with those of a city planning authority. The functions of the two are quite distinct. The city planning board has to do primarily with the practical utility of proposed improvements, the art jury primarily with the artistic execution of those improvements. For instance, the first decides that a bridge of a certain capacity is needed at a certain point. The second passes only upon the artistic quality of the design — example of art commission's function, the designs of the bridges at Spuyten Duyvil and Hell Gate.

F. ELLIS JACKSON, *Providence, R. I.:*

No. For several reasons it would seem that such an arrangement would be inadvisable, inasmuch as many persons who would be best qualified to act on an art jury or commission would not be satisfactory members of the city planning authority, dealing in large and important matters closely allied to commercial and physical conditions. It is possible that a commission might be a subcommission of the city planning authority, but it would seem advisable that the art commission and city planning authority should work in harmony with a possible mutual member serving on each of these commissions.

ROBERT D. KOHN, *New York City:*

On your question No. 5 I have very decided opinions. It seems to me fatal to permit the combination of an art jury or commission with a city planning authority. I take the liberty to attach hereto a copy of a report recently sent to Cleveland on the proposed city planning commission organization for that city.

The particular function of an art commission is not necessarily consistent with the work of a city planning commission and may in some ways be inconsistent with such work. The two functions should not be performed by the same class of persons. The class of persons that should serve on an art commission is entirely different from the particular class that may properly be selected to serve on a city planning

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commission. While it is very desirable, as I understand the situation in Cleveland at the present time, that the city planning commission shall be composed in the main, if not entirely, of responsible city officials, working with the advice and guidance of well informed citizens and experts, it is highly undesirable, in my opinion, that any city official, with the exception of possibly the mayor, should be on an art commission. The majority of matters that come before an art commission for approval or disapproval are matters that are presented by heads of city departments in connection with their official work. Such submissions should be passed on by a commission of experts, architects, painters and sculptors, with the addition of a number of public spirited citizens, chosen from the art-loving and art-knowing public. In most cities the choice is made by the mayor from among the officers of the art museums, the universities and the patrons of the fine arts. Under the New York Charter the choice of both artists and laymen is made by the mayor from a list presented for his consideration by the federated arts societies of the city (Fine Arts Federation).

My main point here is that your commission has of necessity frequently to oppose or require the modification of a design submitted by city officials, and therefore the city officials should not be on the art commission. It will lose most, if not all, of its effect if that be the case.

The class of citizens that will be effective on the city planning commission may not be, and probably would not be, effective on an art commission. I hope I have been able to make clear why the two functions should be kept separate. I think every person that has had experience in any other city will say the same thing. An art commission should be kept in the main entirely outside of the functions of the city planning commission. It should be a commission of experts and laymen interested in the arts. The city planning commission may very properly be composed of city officials, advised by and working with persons outside of the city government.

EDWARD K. PUTNAM, *Davenport, Iowa:*

The art commission should at least be allied with the plan commission. There might be a danger in actually combining the two. The business men might predominate on the plan commission, when they might not themselves be competent judges of works of art. On the other hand, if the art people predominated on the commission, undue emphasis might be laid on certain architectural and art features of the city, such as grouping all public buildings, and this might tend to make too much of the city beautiful and not enough of the city efficient.

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WILLIAM C. STANTON, *Philadelphia, Pa.:*

The function of an art jury should be combined with that of the city planning authority. The present function of most art juries is simply that of censorship, while the function of most city planning commissions is creative. Were the two functions combined in one body there would result a smoother and more rapid development with much less friction.

HOWARD E. TAYLOR, *Pittsfield, Mass.:*

I hardly think it practicable to combine the functions of an art jury or commission with the city planning authority, my opinion being based upon the belief that, if anything is to be accomplished by a city planning authority, it must satisfy the utilitarian in the mind of the American public, and too much art mixed in with its work would defeat any hope of its gaining any public support.

Question 6. — How should the city planning authority be constituted?

- (a) The city engineer or other similar official?
- (b) A committee of the board of estimate, council, governing commission or similar body?
- (c) A special ex officio commission consisting of department heads or engineers having to do with the planning of particular functions?
- (d) A special commission composed of citizens who are not city officials and who serve without pay?

Seventy-one replies were received; 2 favored the city engineer or other similar official; 3 favored a committee of the board of estimate, council, governing commission or similar body; 2 favored a special ex officio commission consisting of department heads or engineers having to do with the planning of particular functions; 28 favored a special commission composed of citizens who are not city officials and who served without pay, and 36 favored some combination of the four methods above enumerated.

EXTRACTS FROM CERTAIN REPLIES TO QUESTION 6

HARLAND BARTHOLOMEW, *Newark, N. J.:*

A city planning authority should be small, consisting of five members in cities over 100,000 population and of three members in cities under 100,000 population. If desirable to enlarge this authority, add to it such other citizens and officials as may be desired as advisory members only. A five-member authority should consist of the city engineer and one other representative city official, for instance, a member of the board of estimate, council, governing commission or similar body, the other three members to be citizens, preferably a

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lawyer, an architect and a representative business man. An authority of three members should consist of the city engineer and two citizens, preferably a lawyer and a business man.

E. M. BASSETT, *New York City*:

The city legislature (council) should be the final authority on all questions of city planning. The city engineering office should be the student and workman on the city plan. Commissions created should be advisory.

JOHN J. MURPHY, *New York City*:

Personally, I prefer the suggestion made in subdivision (d) of this number. I think that the body ought not to be composed of public officials. Such a committee can command at any time the services of such officials, and I think its decisions ought to be entirely free from control by city administration.

ALFRED BETTMAN, *Cincinnati, Ohio*:

Here again I would recommend the plan which we worked out for the said proposed Cincinnati Charter. In that case the number seven was adopted, of which four were to be citizens other than city officials. This was to put the city officials in a minority on the planning commission, and the citizen members were given terms that would not be coterminous with those of the official members. The official members were to be the mayor and the director of highways and the president of the park board. Of all executive officials, the mayor might naturally be expected to be most interested in city planning and the proper correlation of the different classes of public improvements. The other two members were chosen on the principle of placing on the commission the heads of those two departments which have charge of the public works of the classes which, quantitatively at least, are most related to city planning. The general principle of some citizen members and some official members is a good one, and among the latter the mayor ought certainly be chosen. Just which of the other department heads should belong to the planning commission would depend on the particular form of departmental organization in each city.

CITY PLANNING BOARD OF BOSTON, *Boston, Mass.*:

Different plans might be best in different places. The Boston plan is that listed as (d), except that the members of the board, five in number, are appointed by the mayor (under a mandatory state law) and that the board is a city department. This plan has its weakness, for the board has practically no power and very little money, but would not (a) be likely to be too narrow a plan, and would not (b) and (c) tend to be casual and not sufficiently concentrated upon the planning function?

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MAYO FESLER, *Cleveland, Ohio:*

The city planning commission should be constituted in part of city officials and in part of citizens holding no official relation to the government. The difficulty of having department heads compose a commission is that they are already swamped with the details of the work and cannot give sufficient attention to a comprehensive plan for the city.

B. A. HALDEMAN, *Philadelphia, Pa.:*

The city planning authority should be an executive department of the city government in larger cities and should be a department of the state government for the preparation of plans for the development of rural sections and the smaller communities. A department of this kind should be charged with the duty of preparing tentative plans and officially establishing certain of them and should have an organization permitting it to make all the investigations and perform all the work necessary to the preparation of such plans. Official approval of the plans should be in the hands of a board of confirmation constituted in such a manner that its personnel may not be subject to radical changes, as it is essential to the proper carrying out of such plans that the officials having authority should be able to establish and maintain consistent and continuing policies which shall not be subject to violent changes. It might be possible in some cities for this board to be composed of the heads of the various executive departments.

S. HERBERT HARE, *Kansas City, Mo.*

The city planning authority should be constituted to a great extent of citizens of broad ideas and sound judgment, serving with or without pay, together with representatives of the city government in the form of the city engineer, committee of the council or even a regular commission in the case of commission government. Experts in the various fields should be in regular or occasional consultation.

ROBERT HOFFMAN, *Cleveland, Ohio:*

The city planning authority should, I believe, contain certain public officials, whose retention in office is continuous and who are not subject to frequent removals on account of political changes, and whose work is intimately connected with that of such a city planning authority. This might include positions such as city engineer, engineer of parks and city architects. It would also seem that certain elective or appointive officials, as, for instance, the mayor, director of public service, director of finance and president of the council, could be considered in connection with such authority. In addition there should be a number of citizens who are not city officials and who are especially adapted for work of the kind required and who should constitute a majority of the commission.

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JOHN IHLDER, *New York City*:

I believe that the city planning board should be a special commission of citizens, not city officials, to serve without pay, but with power to call upon city officials for information and advice. In an ex officio commission the members are likely to be so engrossed with the details of their own individual work that they can spend little time or thought in considering the city as a whole. In addition there is likely to be a little rivalry between departments, so that suggestions originating in one will not be received with acclamation by others. The city planning board should have a paid secretary who will give all his time to the work.

HON. WILLIAM A. MAGEE, *Pittsburgh, Pa.*¹

No particular executive officer should be on this commission unless all can be. In a city that has a commission form of government, say, not more than three or five commissioners, I should say that all ought to be on the planning commission. In a very small city, if there is one particular officer that has practically all public work under his control, I should say that he ought to be on the planning commission. But in larger cities of several hundred thousand, where there is a wide distribution of executive authority, it would be a hazardous experiment to take on anyone, in view of the jealousy which might be aroused. It certainly could not take all heads of departments, for your commission would be made unwieldy. My way of meeting the difficulty is to have the commission obtain its authority directly from the chief executive of the city, who, at least in theory, has all the administrative functions directly or indirectly under his control. If the planning commissioners receive their appointments from the mayor, they are most likely to have the effective coöperation of all the heads of departments, since they are all subordinate to the chief executive.

BENJAMIN C. MARSH, *New York City*:

The city planning authority should be appointed by the mayor and should include the city engineer, or other similar official, and the department head or engineer having to do with the planning of particular functions. A special volunteer advisory committee of citizens who are not city officials would be advisable, but the ultimate power to decide the city planning should be vested in the city officials.

ALLEN B. POND, *Chicago, Ill.*:

The objection to having the backbone or controlling force in the city planning authority vested as in forms (a), (b) and (c) is the passing

¹ See "Proceedings of the Fifth National Conference on City Planning, May 5-7, 1913."

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character of such officials, and therefore of commissions thus constituted, and the reasonable presumption that under conditions prevailing in American city politics such officials and commissions would be largely unfit for the function. If a commission is established under form (d) with specified duration of term of service of individuals composing it and the overlapping of the terms of individual members, this will give a much stronger guarantee of wise policy in the first place and of more permanency to the policy thereafter. The authority vested in such a commission and the fact that it is reasonably permanent in its constituency will tend to dictate careful and wise selection of its members in the first instance. City officials, particularly if elective, should be added to this commission or made parts of it only as a minority, nor should such elective officials plus appointed officials, such as city engineers and the like, when combined constitute a majority. I take it that it would be possible to draw the act in question or the charter provision so that the commission would have power to call upon city engineers and similar functionaries, corporation counsels and the like for information and facts without such officials being voting members of the commission.

The commission should have in it men who are particularly expert in certain aspects of the work required to be done, architects, engineers, transportation experts, park and playground experts and the like; but it is absolutely essential that there be in its membership, and especially at the head of the commission, the sort of person whose breadth of view will enable him to see far beyond the scope of the ordinary expert in some one field, to the end that the suggestions of the experts may be whipped into shape and made to serve a total and greater unity than otherwise could be achieved. My experience has led me to a high regard for the specific value of expert service and a rather low esteem of the ability of experts to see the larger aspects of their own field where such field has to be related to an inclusive scheme. It is my impression, perhaps somewhat biased, that this more inclusive view is more likely to be found with architects than with any other one class of the population at the present time, although it may be found in some all-round connoisseur as well.

FREDERIC B. PRATT, *Brooklyn, N. Y.:*

The city planning authority should consist of representatives of the city engineer's department and representatives of the board of estimate. I do not believe it wise for citizens who are not in the employ of the city to be members of this commission.

EDWARD K. PUTNAM, *Davenport, Iowa:*

As to the makeup of a city planning authority, to have this work done by the city engineer or by a committee of the city council keeps

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it too close to city politics. It seems to me the best results could come from a combination commission made up of certain officials *ex officio* and of citizens. The president of this commission should be a citizen and not an official, and the citizen should predominate on the commission, but the officials should be sufficiently well represented to be made to feel that they are vitally interested in the work.

WILLIAM C. STANTON, *Philadelphia, Pa.*:

(a) City planning authority may be constituted in various ways, depending upon the size of the municipality. If it is possible to obtain a man possessed of the necessary qualifications, it is often much simpler to engage him and clothe him with full powers subject to proper precautions. Larger communities generally require a commission. The city engineer should by all means be a member of such board, as he is generally presumed to have some knowledge on the subject in question. In small cities he might be vested with full powers.

(b) A committee of the board of estimate, council or government commission might constitute a very able body but for the fact that most of these boards serve for a stated period and may not succeed themselves.

(c) A special *ex officio* commission consisting of department heads and engineers welded into a city planning committee, even though it be not vested with powers as a committee, nevertheless contains in itself, through the officials of the municipality, the necessary power to form a very efficient commission, provided their terms be overlapping and the body continuous.

(d) A commission composed of citizens who are not city officials and who serve without pay is liable eventually to become less efficient. The members of such a commission are generally men whose time is extremely valuable, and their attendance at numerous meetings may ultimately affect seriously their private interests. If such a commission be composed of members who receive remuneration and give a certain definite portion of their time to the work, results might be much better.

JOHN K. STAUFFER, *Reading, Pa.*:

As city planning contemplates the wisest and most comprehensive development through a course of many years, and especially with respect to far-sighted plans for the acquisition of areas necessary for future park spaces and other public uses, determination of these problems should not be made a part of the routine work of short-term city officials or their immediate subordinates in appointive positions. Men elected or appointed to office for terms of two, three or four years are expected to execute existing laws and enact such new regulations

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as may be found expedient for the most efficient management of public affairs in the immediate present, i. e., for the one year for which they are apportioning the available municipal revenues under a budget, or in contemplation of the two, three or four year period of their respective terms of service. The city planning authority, on the other hand, should represent individual and collective vision, soundness of judgment and fixity of purpose respecting city development through decades to come. Once it convinces the community that it possesses and is exercising these qualifications it may expect an ever-increasing public support for the carrying out of its recommendations, which is the essential need after the preparation of a comprehensive plan. As a non-partisan board it should gain public support in a larger measure than if the recommendations came from a board of city officials whose election or appointment springs primarily from political sources. To make progress in winning the support of the entire municipality, regardless of all political complexities, it appears best results may be expected from an appointive board of five members, for instance, with the term of one member expiring each year and his successor being designated for a five-year term.

Municipalities pay their officials for service rendered in conducting the day by day administration along most efficient lines because public sentiment is a unit as to its necessity. So long as the city planning authority is uncompensated, public sentiment may be expected to consider such a board largely ornamental, lacking in real powers and not vitally necessary to the city's present well-being and future growth. If the city planners are compensated somewhat in proportion to the time and interest they contribute to advancing the work properly coming under their jurisdiction, the general public is likely to be interested immediately to the extent of the cost to the public treasury, to require satisfactory evidence of the performance of the duties for which payment is made and to feel an increasing individual and community interest in the personnel and public advantages accruing from improvements accomplished.

LOUIS L. TRIBUS, *New York City*:

A board made up of the chief engineer of the board of estimate and apportionment, chairman ex officio; five engineers, one nominated by each borough president, salaried; one architect, nominated by the mayor, salaried; five laymen, one representing each borough, to be nominated by the mayor, fees; one secretary, appointed by the board of estimate and apportionment. The five engineers and architect to give constant service, also secretary, clerks, etc.; the laymen and chief engineer to act in advisory capacity, the former being paid only for meetings attended where real service is given.

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GEORGE W. TUTTLE, *West New Brighton, N. Y.*:

Some city planning office or authority should be created where it does not exist, not necessarily single in large cities which are divided into boroughs or other considerable units, nor need it be separate from other civic duties in the case of small cities or towns, whose function is to initiate a comprehensive plan and correlate particular improvements proposed, with its essential requirements, that a scheme of orderly development may be provided.

It is believed that the office preparing the scheme should not have the power to legalize the map, but that the function of criticism, adoption or rejection should be intrusted to a commission made up of representative men, say an engineer, an architect, a representative of real estate interests, a representative of civic societies, etc., that the plan may fairly represent public opinion and obtain public support. The power to originate and adopt would be too great to rest in one individual, since he might have ideas quite different from those prevailing in the community, or with other persons equally expert.

The authority originating the plan and correlating proposed improvements should usually be the city or borough engineer, as his office usually has the facilities and data for such work.

Question 7. — Do you think it desirable that the city planning authority should first develop its tentative comprehensive plan before permitting itself to advise and recommend with reference to particular problems?

Seventy-two replies were received; 46 answered this question in the affirmative and 26 in the negative.

EXTRACT FROM REPLIES TO QUESTION 7

B. A. HALDEMAN, *Philadelphia, Pa.*:

The preparation of a tentative comprehensive plan is an undertaking involving much investigation and labor and its proper development will consume considerable time; in the event of the establishment of a city planning department it should immediately be placed in the position of being able authoritatively to advise and recommend in the case of public improvements to be covered by the plan and over which it is expected to exercise jurisdiction.

Question 8. — Should a state plan commission be created with duties to investigate and report and give aid and advice to the local planning authorities?

Sixty-six replies were received; 25 opposed a state plan commission; 20 were in favor of such a commission; 19 gave a qualified approval

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and 2 recommended that such a commission be a department of the national government.

EXTRACT FROM REPLIES TO QUESTION 8

JOHN K. STAUFFER, *Reading, Pa.*:

Appointment of a state plan commission would have a probable tendency to arouse local interest in two ways: one through publicity concerning what other cities are doing, and the other through expectation that a state board may render favors without local expense. Whatever stimulates public interest in city planning, so long as it does not crush out local initiative, may be considered advantageous to local growth. Correlation of the possible activities of cities of similar size and facing similar problems would seem to be the most evident advantage.

Question 9. — In taking land for street purposes, should authority be conferred, either by statute or constitutional amendment, to deny compensation for buildings erected within the lines of proposed streets subsequent to the formal adoption of plans for such streets?

Sixty-six replies were received; 5 answers were in the negative, 53 in the affirmative and 8 gave a qualified approval.

THOMAS ADAMS, *Ottawa, Canada*:

Of course, yes; except in so far as such compensation could have been made a subject of claim prior to formal adoption. There are also some directions in which legal power should be obtained to limit claims that can now be made. In Canada and Britain it is legal to fix building lines without giving the owner a right to claim compensation, and in all fairness to owners, why not — if they are all treated alike under a statutory scheme? Except under legislative powers, however, no method that is equitable to owners can be employed to restrict the use of property, and that is one reason why city planning which is not preceded by legislation must be largely ineffective.

B. A. HALDEMAN, *Philadelphia, Pa.*:

The city planning authority should be invested with sufficient power to protect the plans officially established by it from encroachment by private improvements or changes which might impair their usefulness and prohibit or greatly increase the cost of carrying them into effect. It might be necessary to devise some means for making compensation for actual losses suffered by individuals through the delay in carrying out the plans.

OTTO W. DAVIS, *Minneapolis, Minn.*:

Impossible to answer by either yes or no. Compensation should be denied where the owner loses nothing by being deprived of the

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privilege of locating a building on the site for a proposed street. This would apply to undeveloped land on the outskirts of the city. Compensation should be made when land available for building purposes only is deprived of such use and yet not immediately taken by the city for street purposes. It is easy to conceive that a man might own a valuable vacant lot on which he intended to erect a building and that this lot would be so located as to be wholly included or so nearly included in the proposed street as to make it impossible either to sell or to use any portion of it for building purposes. Such an owner should, of course, be compensated and the improvement charged up to the owners of benefited property.

WILLIAM C. STANTON, *Philadelphia, Pa.*:

Buildings located within the lines of proposed streets subsequent to their formal confirmation or adoption should be prohibited. No new structures or improvements to existing structures should be permitted except when such streets, although adopted, will not be opened for some considerable period, in which case certain additions and improvements might be allowed by the building department of the city after due investigation of all the circumstances. Some equitable arrangement should be made to compensate property owners for losses sustained owing to the neglect of a municipality to complete improvements contemplated within a reasonable period.

HOWARD E. TAYLOR, *Pittsfield, Mass.*:

My definite opinion is that there should be no authority conferred either by statute or constitutional amendment to deny compensation for buildings erected within the lines of the proposed streets, subsequent to the formal adoption of plans for such streets. My reason for this opinion is that a city planning authority might adopt its tentative plan for future city building and then for one reason or another be delayed in carrying out the same for a period of years. It also might, for good reasons arising after having adopted such plans, cancel the same and substitute an entirely new plan. In such event the property owner, parts of whose property had been included in the tentative plan previously adopted, should not lose the ad interim right to improve his own property for his own profit, provided that such improvement is made in good faith and not purely for the purpose of forcing the city to pay him exorbitant compensatory damages when his property is condemned for public purposes. As a corollary it follows that the court of jurisdiction should have the power of reviewing all condemnation cases arising when the city planning authority takes private property for public purposes.

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Question 10. — Should powers similar to those contained in the English Town Planning Act be vested in the local authorities?

Fifty-nine replies were received; 55 replied in the affirmative and 4 in the negative.

EXTRACTS FROM CERTAIN REPLIES TO QUESTION 10

THOMAS ADAMS, *Ottawa, Canada:*

I prefer the powers in the Nova Scotia act. No other method can lead to success in a democratic country than either the English or the Canadian acts, subject to adaptation to conditions in the States. The only alternatives are autocratic powers, which I imagine would not be acceptable in the States.

HARLAND BARTHOLOMEW, *Newark, N. J.:*

These powers accomplish the very results for which city planning here in America is striving. Proper community development is impossible without them.

EDWARD M. BASSETT, *New York City:*

The English Town Planning Act points the direction for our states to follow better than the precedents of any other country. It fits itself to our ideas of popular government and home rule. We should work toward something of the sort.

G. FRANK BEER, *Toronto, Canada:*

No. The powers vested in the Local Government Board (Great Britain) are entirely too important and too far reaching to be left to local authorities.

OTTO W. DAVIS, *Minneapolis, Minn.:*

The English Town Planning Act appealed very strongly to our committee and we undertook to develop a plan and prepare a bill for a similar act in Minnesota. We found the way strewn with so many difficulties that, one by one, the features of the act had to be given up until very little indeed was left. Will enclose copy of the bill which was introduced, but got no further than the committee. The passage of this bill would have done wonders for our local situation, as most of the future development of Minneapolis is certain to be within Hennepin County. At present there are 23 political divisions in the county accepting plats. Our committee deems town planning as worked out by the English, namely, that designed to prevent bad developments in the future, of more immediate importance by far for Minneapolis than the correction of existing evils, the development of a civic center, etc., although there is no reason why the two should not be "married," as an English town planner expressed it last

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summer. The point of view of our committee is given in the enclosed leaflet.

Our city is growing very rapidly and there is every indication that it will continue to grow equally rapidly for many years, largely because of the tremendous development that is taking place throughout the whole Northwest. If we grow at the same rate as during the last census decade, we double in about 17 years, will have over a million population in 25 years and over two million population in 50 years from the last census.

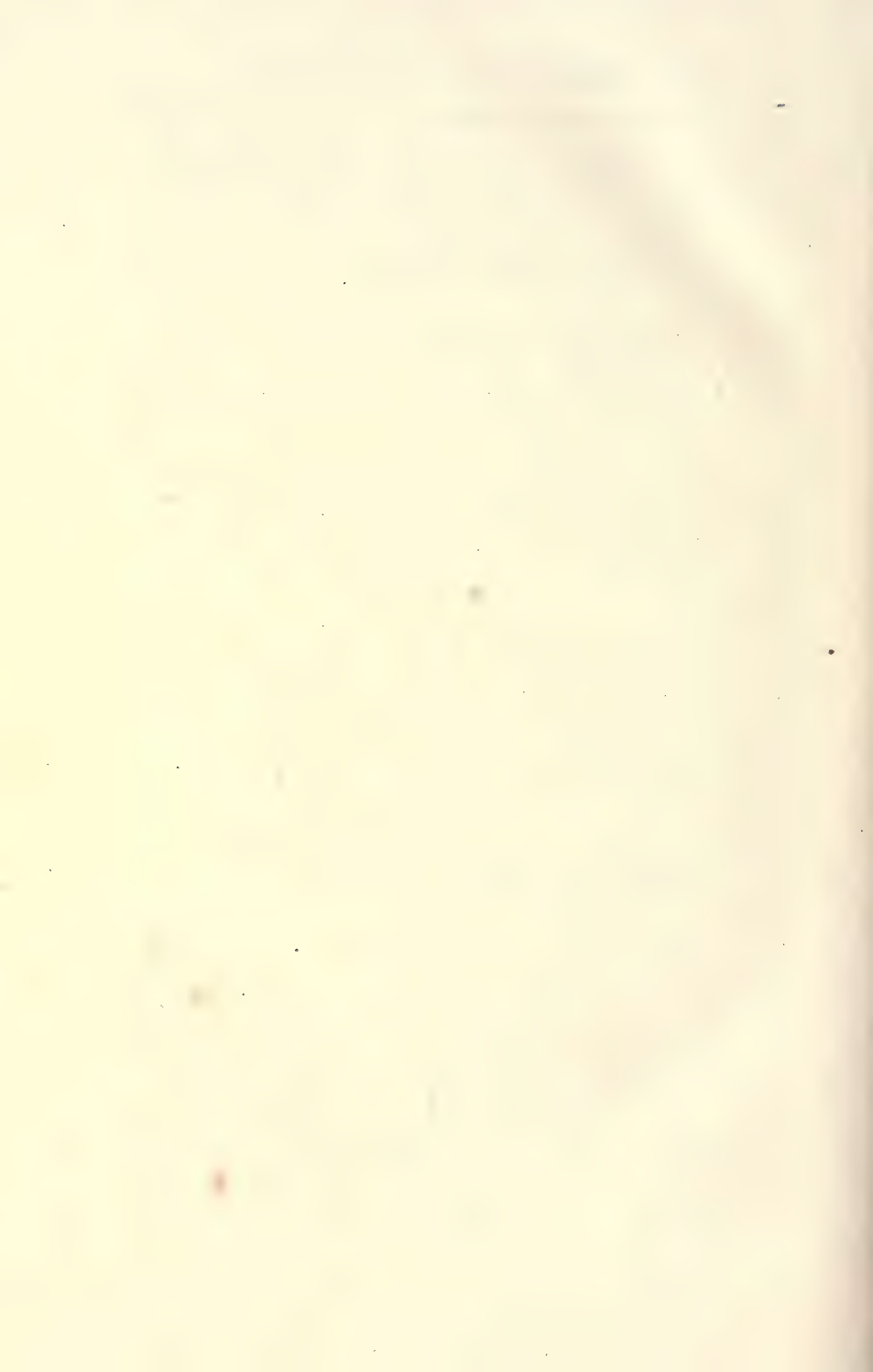
Some of us feel that American city planning has made a serious mistake in confining its activities almost wholly to land within the city limits. The problem which presses upon Minneapolis is that of properly planning the land lying immediately outside the city limits.

B. A. HALDEMAN, *Philadelphia, Pa.:*

I believe the city planning body should be clothed with pretty much the same authority as is conferred upon the Local Government Board by the British Town Planning Act, but I believe that the authority for creating and the organization for carrying the plans into effect should be somewhat different from those prescribed by the British act.

GEORGE W. TUTTLE, *West New Brighton, N. Y.:*

Whether by adaptation of the British Town Planning Act or otherwise, some means should be found whereby the plan arrived at may be carried out by individuals and corporations, as well as by the public authorities. It is of little use to have an adequate plan on paper if it is to be ignored by real estate interests and property developed and improved on narrow, badly located streets laid out without regard to the plan. The plan, however, will ultimately have to conform to those streets by reason of the great expense and destruction involved in any change. Methods of private development and the policies of cities as to their plan are too far apart.



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